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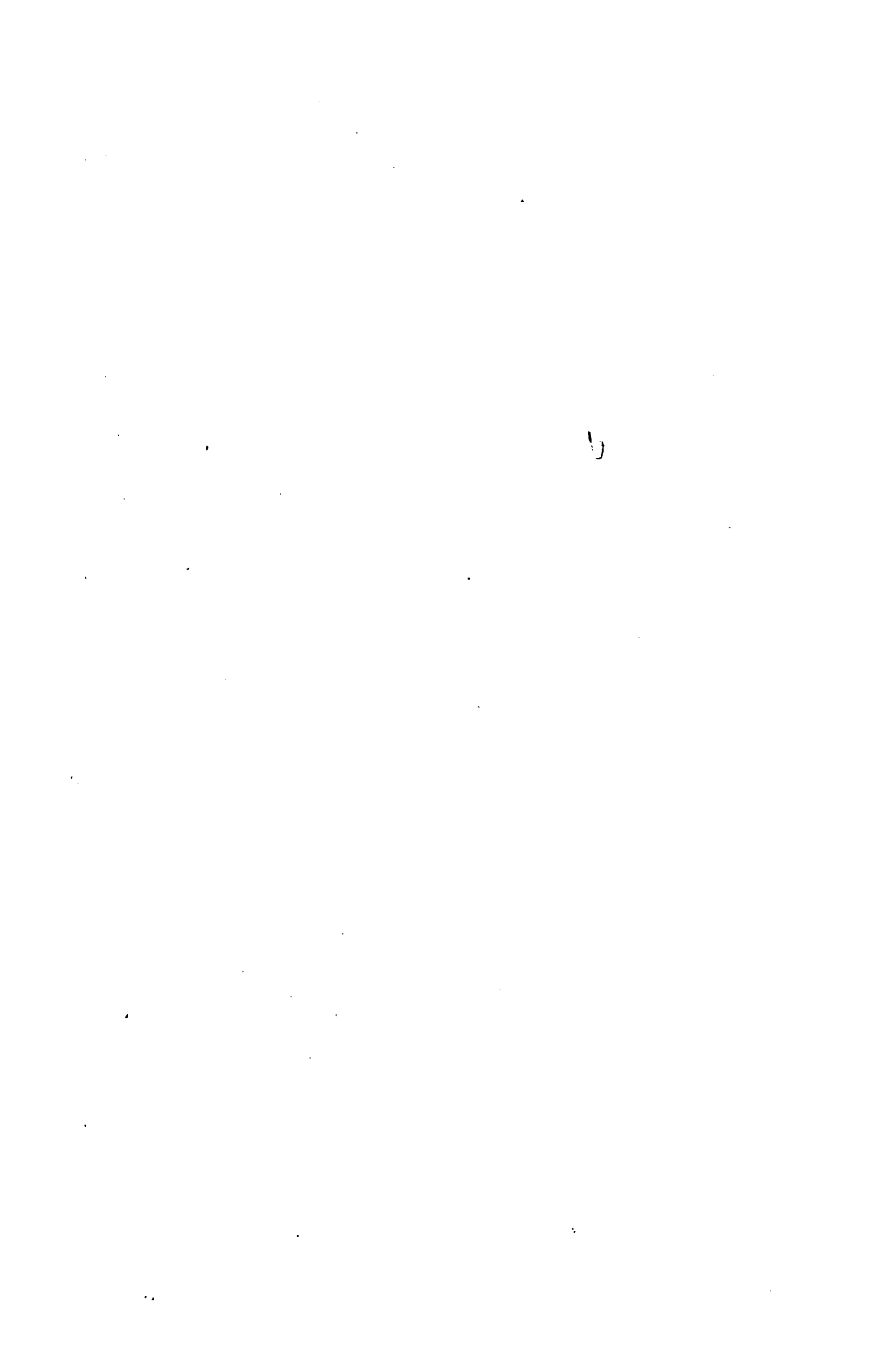








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THE  
ADDRESSES AND JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS  
OF THE  
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,  
SESSION OF THE YEAR 1872,  
AT  
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

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*PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION.*

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# GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

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## FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

### MORNING SESSION.

THE Twelfth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association commenced its sessions in Boston, Tuesday, August 6th, 1872, in the rooms of the Girls' High School, at 10 o'clock A.M.

The Association was called to order by the President, Hon. E. F. WHITE, of Columbus, Ohio, and was opened with prayer by Rev. A. A. MINER, D.D., President of Tufts College.

### ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

*The President.* I now have the very great pleasure of introducing to the Association the Hon. WILLIAM GASTON, Mayor of Boston.

*Mr. Gaston.* Ladies and Gentlemen: I recognize with profound respect the devotion to the cause of learning which calls you together to-day. You have come from far and near to bring to a common storehouse the rich fruits of your varied experience as educators, in order that all may share alike in their benefits and their blessings.

Your vocation, which seeks to educate, and thus to elevate, raises you to a higher and purer atmosphere than that which surrounds the struggles and conflicts, the alternate triumphs and defeats of ordinary life, and inspires you with a devotion to your calling to which but few forms of labor and of duty can furnish a parallel. This high devotion nourished by you, and encouraged and sustained by others, is one of the blessings of the present, and one of the foundations of our hope for the future.

The purpose of your meeting needs no commendation from me. It carries with it its own justification and even praise.

I regret that it is not in my power to aid you in your deliberations. For such a purpose, my presence could not have been asked or desired; but I am here in behalf of a city which claims at least to have contributed something to the cause of popular education, to extend to you my warmest greetings and my most cordial welcome.

The President then introduced Rev. ROBERT C. WATERSTON, Chairman of the Committee of Reception from the School Committee, who said:

**Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen :**

In behalf of the School-Board of the City of Boston, I extend to you a cordial welcome. You have received words of greeting from His Honor the Mayor; but those who have been appointed especially to have charge of the educational interests of the city, at a late meeting at the City Hall, appointed a committee of five to extend to you their fraternal good-will and most hearty welcome.

In some respects this period of midsummer may be an unfavorable season, for, after the arduous duties of the school-year, many of our teachers, exhausted by their long labors, have sought relaxation at such a distance from the city that they may not have the privilege of being present. I know that you will understand the cause of their absence and be willing to excuse it. Probably, however, before the close of your session you will have the pleasure of being welcomed by many more teachers and members of the School-Board than are now present; certain it is that they will gladly be here if it shall be in their power.

We know that your Association, during its existence of fifteen years, has held its interesting meetings in many of the great cities of the West. We rejoice that it is now our turn to welcome you, that you assemble this year in Massachusetts, the good old commonwealth that has cherished the principle of public education almost from the very commencement of her existence. Two centuries and a half ago, the first school was established in the City of Boston [1635], and now you are welcomed to this noble structure, which is only one of the many public edifices dedicated to education. We do not feel that we can impart to you greater knowledge, wisdom and skill than you will yourselves bring to us. We feel that from that great breadth of western country, with all its influences of the new civilization, shaking off useless conventionalities, holding, perhaps, wider and more comprehensive views, you bring with you the same sympathy with the great cause of education which our own city and commonwealth have so long cherished. We feel thankful that you have come, with your advanced thought and expansive views, to pour light into our minds, and help us to carry on with renewed vigor the work that is alike dear to us all.

We, not unfrequently, have had teachers' meetings and associations with us before; but they have been of a different character, chiefly local; we have had meetings frequently of New-England teachers; but here we have a *National Association*, and we give you a still more hearty welcome, because, although through the veins of many of you may flow New-England blood—and we trust that in the hearts of all is kindled the New-England spirit,—we welcome you with a National feeling. We trust we shall hear voices from every state in the great Republic, from beyond the Alleghanies, and beyond the Rocky Mountains; from the South and from the Pacific Coast.

Ladies and gentlemen, it has been my privilege to visit many of the states, partly in the interest of education, and to make reports in a measure afterward to the School-Board of Boston; and I have seen throughout the South and West and on the Pacific Coast, in all those rich and magnificent sections of the country, that the school was honored and that public education was every where considered the foundation of our public welfare. I was thankful to see that so many of those most devoted to the work came from New England. Pardon me if I mention one who is with us to-day, Mr. SWETT, from California, who,

perhaps more than any other man, has moulded the schools of that state. In attending a convention of teachers in San Francisco, some two years since, I was rejoiced to witness the feeling which pervaded that body. There is a bond of fellowship and even of affection that binds us all together. I feel that I am in the midst of a circle united in a common cause. Witnessing this spirit extending throughout the country, we have new reason for faith in the stability of the Republic. Thank God, now that we are no longer shaken by the convulsions of civil war, we may be more united than ever under one national flag, and may we all be ready to swear by the God of Heaven that we will be alike true to the flag and to the great principles of education, which are the only sure foundations of civil and religious liberty. More precious than the gold of the mines of California, and more priceless than the prolific harvests upon the western prairies, are those supremely important interests which have been placed under your charge. When I look over the lists of those whom you have chosen for your officers, I feel indeed that I am addressing a body representing the intellect and the moral worth of the nation. When I look upon those assembled here and feel what you yourselves are, and the body of teachers associated with you, I am moved to the profoundest respect for this Association; and for the transcendent object which brings you together, and in behalf of the School-Board of this city, I extend to you the most cordial welcome.

Ten years have passed since you placed in your constitution a clause admitting women to membership. Since then you have come together with increase of honor and added inspiration. This fact in your own history suggests to me that after the settlement of Boston a century and a half passed before there were any public schools; and it is a curious circumstance that when the public schools were first opened to girls [1789] it was simply incidental. Owing to the primitive character of the times, it happened that many of the boys were engaged in agriculture and industrial labor in the summer, from April to October; the schools became, on this account, nearly deserted, and, in order to make use of the vacant places that were thus left by the boys, the girls were, by favor, allowed to come in and enjoy the privilege for a season. This custom continued about thirty years. It was not until nearly two hundred years after schools had been publicly established for boys that girls were admitted to all the privileges enjoyed by the other sex. And now in this building in which you have assembled you see one of the magnificent structures built by this city for girls alone. Doubtless, at the end of a hundred years it will be found that there are still other stages of progress that will be looked upon by those of that day as we look upon what has already transpired.

Ladies and gentlemen, you yourselves bring the feast, and yet I confess to you I should feel mortified if, while we open our halls and our schools, and come together to discuss the subject of national education, the good City of Boston did not extend to you some more palpable expression of her hospitality. The School-Board have not themselves the treasury at their disposal. The City Fathers, perhaps wisely fearing that in some things we might be too liberal, retain the purse-strings in their own hands. But we shall do every thing in our power to extend to you every possible hospitality, and I do not for a moment question that the city government, which is always generous, and

which knows no object dearer than that of education, will do what will be most honorable to itself and acceptable to all.

Whatever measures are adopted for a social gathering, due notice shall be given before the close of the convention. Once again I extend to each and all a most cordial welcome.

The President then introduced Mr. F. H. UNDERWOOD, a member of the Committee of Reception.

*Mr. Underwood.* I am very glad, Mr. President, that your association meets in our city; for I am fully aware that Boston is an enigma in the minds of people in various parts of the country. Those who come here for the first time, and those who have merely formed their opinions by hearsay, rarely have favorable impressions. They see that our buildings are solid, gloomy, and made ugly, as though with malice aforethought. Our people, they imagine, are like the houses they dwell in, comfortably sheltered, but peering out through their spectacles, as from close-shut windows, and as cool and forbidding as their granite walls. The Boston man, as he exists in the popular mind, is one who in his own esteem is complete, lacking nothing. He has his furniture, his safe old family coach, and his library. His club, his office, the exchange, are all parts of a fixed daily routine. He has his church and his particular pew, and his established theology. His opinions on all subjects are clear and set down, as if in docketed and labeled bundles, and carefully stowed away in their respective pigeon-holes. He has his preacher, his favorite authors, his candidate for President: — no doubt or indifference or change in any one of them. His wife has her silks, her diamonds, and her camel's-hair shawl. She has her proper jewels and apparel for all social uses, and her "set" in which she moves like a planet in its sphere.

Such being the notion of the typical Bostonian, it might be supposed that all his ideas pertaining to education had crystallized (or fossilized) to an equal solidity. But the Boston man, when known, is quite a different person. It is not true that our *savans* or philosophers spend their lives, like the Hindoo gods, in the contemplation of their own perfections. Although the system of free schools and the idea of universal education originated here, we are very far from thinking that we have arrived at a point where there can be no improvement. Throughout our whole school system, from the venerable university at Cambridge down to our primary schools, there have been recently great and important movements. The new President of Harvard has infused his ideas of the New Education, and has led the way to a thorough reform in all branches of higher instruction. The Latin School has followed, and is now at work upon a programme that makes a change as thorough as though it were a new school. Other schools feel the influence, and are tending to the same path of progress.

So, in stead of coming to a city with fixed opinions on the best methods of teaching, you find a prevalent state of inquiry, and a disposition to look for light from all quarters. We therefore welcome this assembly of instructors, and we assure you that we are as ready to profit by your advice and your experience as the newest town on the frontier. Hoping, further, that you will not find us quite so grim as we have been painted, but will come to know that we are *human* at heart, only a little unfortunate in manner, perhaps, — and that your session may be pleasant and profitable to all, I bid you once more welcome.

RESPONSE BY THE PRESIDENT.

*The President responded as follows:*

His Honor, the Mayor of Boston, and the Worthy Representatives of the School-Board:

On behalf of the members of the National Educational Association, I return thanks for this cordial welcome. We recognize in the earnest words you have spoken an appreciation not only of the great cause which we represent, but also of those who are engaged in its promotion. Massachusetts has honored teachers with something more real than words. She has given them a place of honor in her institutions and in her social life.

In coming to this city, we feel that we are on historic ground. The old Commonwealth is renowned not more for what she did in establishing our civil institutions than for the grander work of laying the foundations on which alone these institutions can stand. She was the first government in the world to recognize the principle that it is the duty of the state to educate its youth at the public expense. Massachusetts is entitled to the great honor of establishing *the first free-school system*. I am aware that this honor is claimed for Scotland, and also for Holland; but the system of Scotland, begun in 1494, was parochial, and that of Holland, founded in 1623, was ecclesiastical—neither being, in any true sense, a public school system. In 1647, Massachusetts began the magnificent free-school system of America, soon to be successful and secure in every state and territory of the Union. Here its first foundation-stones were laid. Truly the fathers must have “built better than they knew.” They made education and liberty coextensive by making both universal. They joined them in a perpetual alliance; and what a grand civilization has been the result, and how widely it has spread its blessings.

The service rendered the cause of public education by New England is not limited to her example. An army of her teachers went into the other portions of the country, and every where they carried the New-England school. They have assisted in establishing those vigorous school systems which are the honor and glory of so many of our states. I am safe in saying that there are probably not twenty persons in this large audience who have not, at some time, sat at the feet of a New-England teacher. Many, if not most, received their education in New-England schools and colleges. They cheerfully and gratefully award to this city, to this commonwealth, and to New England generally, the honor due them for what they have so nobly done for public education.

We come here as the educational representatives of the entire country. The Atlantic States, the Central States, whose territory was dedicated to education and liberty by the ordinance of 1787, the States of the Great West, and the Pacific Coast, and the Southern States, are here represented. We specially welcome our brethren of the South, who are so earnestly laboring to establish efficient school systems. In this great warfare against ignorance, they stand shoulder to shoulder with the educators of the North. We trust that our meeting here may give this city a still higher appreciation of the Association, and that the bond that unites all sections of the country may be strengthened.

## INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

After a pause, the President resumed:

Members of the Association, Ladies and Gentlemen:

It was formerly the custom for the presiding officer to present a somewhat formal opening or inaugural address; but at the St. Louis meeting, last year, our excellent President departed from this custom, and I think you will be pleased if I follow his example. But permit me to say a few words respecting the programme of exercises.

It seems best that the attention of this Association should be chiefly given to the consideration of those great educational questions which concern the future development and progress of American education, questions of national importance, and that other questions be left to state and other local associations. Those intrusted with the preparation of the programme also agreed that questions of interest to all classes of teachers and school officers should, as far as possible, be brought before the General Association, leaving questions of special interest to superintendents, normal teachers, etc., to be considered in the departments.

The programme of the General Association includes several of the most important educational questions of the day, and it is hoped that their discussion may elicit the best views and the ripest experience of the country. These fundamental questions are:

1. How can education be made universal? How shall the instruction of our schools be made to reach and bless every child of the republic? The discussion of this subject is to be opened by one who has given it careful and thorough consideration, and the views of others are solicited.

2. How can the schools be best supplied with trained and competent teachers? The American school is to be made more efficient chiefly by increasing the qualifications of the teacher. Elaborate systems and costly school-houses are not enough. The essential agent in education is the teacher. We hope that this "Normal Problem" may be thoroughly discussed, and some definite conclusion reached.

3. How can the qualifications of teachers be best determined? This question touches the administration of school systems. In most of the states teaching has no legal recognition as a profession. There should be a large body of professional teachers in every state, known and honored as such. The first step to secure this end is to place the examination in the hands of the profession. The next is a system of professional certificates. This subject is to be presented by Hon. JOHN SWETT, of California, who inaugurated a system there more just to the profession than that of any other state.

4. How can the higher education of woman be best provided for? The higher institutions of the country are considering this question, and it is an important one. The question is not whether women shall receive as thorough and broad an education as men. This is conceded, and woman has demonstrated her capacity to acquire such an education. The simple question is this:

Shall women be educated in our present colleges with men, or shall equally well endowed institutions be established for their education? It was hoped that President WHITE, of Cornell University, would present this subject, but a letter just received from him states that he can not be present.

Another question, and one which I should have stated first, is this: What is the duty of the public school with respect to moral training?—a vital question.

I trust that the discussion of these, and other important questions included in our programme, will make this meeting felt in all the future of American education. This Association has the opportunity to assist in shaping the systems of instruction which, in the future, are to give character to the American people. May this opportunity be well improved.

In conclusion, permit me to return to you my thanks for the honor of presiding over your deliberations on this occasion.

E. P. FROST, of Illinois, was appointed Assistant Secretary, and C. R. STUNTZ, of Ohio, and R. WOODBURY, of Maine, Assistant Treasurers.

Adjourned, to meet at 8 o'clock P.M., at the hall of the Lowell Institute.

### EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order by the President, who announced Rev. Dr. A. D. MAYO, of Cincinnati, as the lecturer for the evening, who delivered the following address:

#### METHODS OF MORAL INSTRUCTION IN COMMON SCHOOLS.

By the command of the President of the National Education Association, an authority I have learned, amid the duties and emergencies of educational life in the West, to implicitly obey, I appear before this illustrious body of teachers and friends of schools, to introduce a theme that lies at the foundation of human culture and human character; on the decision of which the existence of the American common school depends. I ask the indulgence, especially of you who are teachers, to some thoughts of an educational layman on *Methods of Moral Instruction in Common Schools*.

THE ERA OF METHODS.—We have fallen upon the era of methods in American education. During the last twenty years, our system of public instruction has been groping over the perilous bridge that leads from empiric to scientific methods; groping often in a dense fog, in the face of all the foes that can be summoned by popular ignorance and prejudice, led by people whose sole interest is to keep things as they are. It was natural that this examination of methods should begin at the base of primary instruction, analyze the mind of the child, and learn to bring it face to face with knowledge. That examination has brought us upon the highway to great and successful changes in our mental school discipline. Now we approach the more complex and important question of Methods in Moral Instruction. It is to a careful study of methods and a strict adherence to practical and natural ways of shaping character in the school-room that we must look for a solution of this vexed theme. If the



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Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

In behalf of the School-Board of the City of Boston, I extend to you a cordial welcome. You have received words of greeting from His Honor the Mayor; but those who have been appointed especially to have charge of the educational interests of the city, at a late meeting at the City Hall, appointed a committee of five to extend to you their fraternal good-will and most hearty welcome.

In some respects this period of midsummer may be an unfavorable season, for, after the arduous duties of the school-year, many of our teachers, exhausted by their long labors, have sought relaxation at such a distance from the city that they may not have the privilege of being present. I know that you will understand the cause of their absence and be willing to excuse it. Probably, however, before the close of your session you will have the pleasure of being welcomed by many more teachers and members of the School-Board than are now present; certain it is that they will gladly be here if it shall be in their power.

We know that your Association, during its existence of fifteen years, has held its interesting meetings in many of the great cities of the West. We rejoice that it is now our turn to welcome you, that you assemble this year in Massachusetts, the good old commonwealth that has cherished the principle of public education almost from the very commencement of her existence. Two centuries and a half ago, the first school was established in the City of Boston [1635], and now you are welcomed to this noble structure, which is only one of the many public edifices dedicated to education. We do not feel that we can impart to you greater knowledge, wisdom and skill than you will yourselves bring to us. We feel that from that great breadth of western country, with all its influences of the new civilization, shaking off useless conventionalities, holding, perhaps, wider and more comprehensive views, you bring with you the same sympathy with the great cause of education which our own city and commonwealth have so long cherished. We feel thankful that you have come, with your advanced thought and expansive views, to pour light into our minds, and help us to carry on with renewed vigor the work that is alike dear to us all.

We, not unfrequently, have had teachers' meetings and associations with us before; but they have been of a different character, chiefly local; we have had meetings frequently of New-England teachers; but here we have a *National Association*, and we give you a still more hearty welcome, because, although through the veins of many of you may flow New-England blood—and we trust that in the hearts of all is kindled the New-England spirit,—we welcome you with a National feeling. We trust we shall hear voices from every state in the great Republic, from beyond the Alleghanies, and beyond the Rocky Mountains; from the South and from the Pacific Coast.

Ladies and gentlemen, it has been my privilege to visit many of the states, partly in the interest of education, and to make reports in a measure afterward to the School-Board of Boston; and I have seen throughout the South and West and on the Pacific Coast, in all those rich and magnificent sections of the country, that the school was honored and that public education was every where considered the foundation of our public welfare. I was thankful to see that so many of those most devoted to the work came from New England. Pardon me if I mention one who is with us to-day, Mr. SWERT, from California, who,

perhaps more than any other man, has moulded the schools of that state. In attending a convention of teachers in San Francisco, some two years since, I was rejoiced to witness the feeling which pervaded that body. There is a bond of fellowship and even of affection that binds us all together. I feel that I am in the midst of a circle united in a common cause. Witnessing this spirit extending throughout the country, we have new reason for faith in the stability of the Republic. Thank God, now that we are no longer shaken by the convulsions of civil war, we may be more united than ever under one national flag, and may we all be ready to swear by the God of Heaven that we will be alike true to the flag and to the great principles of education, which are the only sure foundations of civil and religious liberty. More precious than the gold of the mines of California, and more priceless than the prolific harvests upon the western prairies, are those supremely important interests which have been placed under your charge. When I look over the lists of those whom you have chosen for your officers, I feel indeed that I am addressing a body representing the intellect and the moral worth of the nation. When I look upon those assembled here and feel what you yourselves are, and the body of teachers associated with you, I am moved to the profoundest respect for this Association; and for the transcendent object which brings you together, and in behalf of the School-Board of this city, I extend to you the most cordial welcome.

Ten years have passed since you placed in your constitution a clause admitting women to membership. Since then you have come together with increase of honor and added inspiration. This fact in your own history suggests to me that after the settlement of Boston a century and a half passed before there were any public schools; and it is a curious circumstance that when the public schools were first opened to girls [1789] it was simply incidental. Owing to the primitive character of the times, it happened that many of the boys were engaged in agriculture and industrial labor in the summer, from April to October; the schools became, on this account, nearly deserted, and, in order to make use of the vacant places that were thus left by the boys, the girls were, by favor, allowed to come in and enjoy the privilege for a season. This custom continued about thirty years. It was not until nearly two hundred years after schools had been publicly established for boys that girls were admitted to all the privileges enjoyed by the other sex. And now in this building in which you have assembled you see one of the magnificent structures built by this city for girls alone. Doubtless, at the end of a hundred years it will be found that there are still other stages of progress that will be looked upon by those of that day as we look upon what has already transpired.

Ladies and gentlemen, you yourselves bring the feast, and yet I confess to you I should feel mortified if, while we open our halls and our schools, and come together to discuss the subject of national education, the good City of Boston did not extend to you some more palpable expression of her hospitality. The School-Board have not themselves the treasury at their disposal. The City Fathers, perhaps wisely fearing that in some things we might be too liberal, retain the purse-strings in their own hands. But we shall do every thing in our power to extend to you every possible hospitality, and I do not for a moment question that the city government, which is always generous, and

which knows no object dearer than that of education, will do what will be most honorable to itself and acceptable to all.

Whatever measures are adopted for a social gathering, due notice shall be given before the close of the convention. Once again I extend to each and all a most cordial welcome.

The President then introduced Mr. F. H. UNDERWOOD, a member of the Committee of Reception.

*Mr. Underwood.* I am very glad, Mr. President, that your association meets in our city; for I am fully aware that Boston is an enigma in the minds of people in various parts of the country. Those who come here for the first time, and those who have merely formed their opinions by hearsay, rarely have favorable impressions. They see that our buildings are solid, gloomy, and made ugly, as though with malice aforethought. Our people, they imagine, are like the houses they dwell in, comfortably sheltered, but peering out through their spectacles, as from close-shut windows, and as cool and forbidding as their granite walls. The Boston man, as he exists in the popular mind, is one who in his own esteem is complete, lacking nothing. He has his furniture, his safe old family coach, and his library. His club, his office, the exchange, are all parts of a fixed daily routine. He has his church and his particular pew, and his established theology. His opinions on all subjects are clear and set down, as if in docketed and labeled bundles, and carefully stowed away in their respective pigeon-holes. He has his preacher, his favorite authors, his candidate for President:—no doubt or indifference or change in any one of them. His wife has her silks, her diamonds, and her camel's-hair shawl. She has her proper jewels and apparel for all social uses, and her "set" in which she moves like a planet in its sphere.

Such being the notion of the typical Bostonian, it might be supposed that all his ideas pertaining to education had crystallized (or fossilized) to an equal solidity. But the Boston man, when known, is quite a different person. It is not true that our *savans* or philosophers spend their lives, like the Hindoo gods, in the contemplation of their own perfections. Although the system of free schools and the idea of universal education originated here, we are very far from thinking that we have arrived at a point where there can be no improvement. Throughout our whole school system, from the venerable university at Cambridge down to our primary schools, there have been recently great and important movements. The new President of Harvard has infused his ideas of the New Education, and has led the way to a thorough reform in all branches of higher instruction. The Latin School has followed, and is now at work upon a programme that makes a change as thorough as though it were a new school. Other schools feel the influence, and are tending to the same path of progress.

So, in stead of coming to a city with fixed opinions on the best methods of teaching, you find a prevalent state of inquiry, and a disposition to look for light from all quarters. We therefore welcome this assembly of instructors, and we assure you that we are as ready to profit by your advice and your experience as the newest town on the frontier. Hoping, further, that you will not find us quite so grim as we have been painted, but will come to know that we are *human* at heart, only a little unfortunate in manner, perhaps,—and that your session may be pleasant and profitable to all, I bid you once more welcome.

RESPONSE BY THE PRESIDENT.

*The President responded as follows:*

His Honor, the Mayor of Boston, and the Worthy Representatives of the School-Board:

On behalf of the members of the National Educational Association, I return thanks for this cordial welcome. We recognize in the earnest words you have spoken an appreciation not only of the great cause which we represent, but also of those who are engaged in its promotion. Massachusetts has honored teachers with something more real than words. She has given them a place of honor in her institutions and in her social life.

In coming to this city, we feel that we are on historic ground. The old Commonwealth is renowned not more for what she did in establishing our civil institutions than for the grander work of laying the foundations on which alone these institutions can stand. She was the first government in the world to recognize the principle that it is the duty of the state to educate its youth at the public expense. Massachusetts is entitled to the great honor of establishing *the first free-school system*. I am aware that this honor is claimed for Scotland, and also for Holland; but the system of Scotland, begun in 1494, was parochial, and that of Holland, founded in 1623, was ecclesiastical—neither being, in any true sense, a public school system. In 1647, Massachusetts began the magnificent free-school system of America, soon to be successful and secure in every state and territory of the Union. Here its first foundation-stones were laid. Truly the fathers must have “builted better than they knew.” They made education and liberty coextensive by making both universal. They joined them in a perpetual alliance; and what a grand civilization has been the result, and how widely it has spread its blessings.

The service rendered the cause of public education by New England is not limited to her example. An army of her teachers went into the other portions of the country, and every where they carried the New-England school. They have assisted in establishing those vigorous school systems which are the honor and glory of so many of our states. I am safe in saying that there are probably not twenty persons in this large audience who have not, at some time, sat at the feet of a New-England teacher. Many, if not most, received their education in New-England schools and colleges. They cheerfully and gratefully award to this city, to this commonwealth, and to New England generally, the honor due them for what they have so nobly done for public education.

We come here as the educational representatives of the entire country. The Atlantic States, the Central States, whose territory was dedicated to education and liberty by the ordinance of 1787, the States of the Great West, and the Pacific Coast, and the Southern States, are here represented. We specially welcome our brethren of the South, who are so earnestly laboring to establish efficient school systems. In this great warfare against ignorance, they stand shoulder to shoulder with the educators of the North. We trust that our meeting here may give this city a still higher appreciation of the Association, and that the bond that unites all sections of the country may be strengthened.

## INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

After a pause, the President resumed:

Members of the Association, Ladies and Gentlemen:

It was formerly the custom for the presiding officer to present a somewhat formal opening or inaugural address; but at the St. Louis meeting, last year, our excellent President departed from this custom, and I think you will be pleased if I follow his example. But permit me to say a few words respecting the programme of exercises.

It seems best that the attention of this Association should be chiefly given to the consideration of those great educational questions which concern the future development and progress of American education, questions of national importance, and that other questions be left to state and other local associations. Those intrusted with the preparation of the programme also agreed that questions of interest to all classes of teachers and school officers should, as far as possible, be brought before the General Association, leaving questions of special interest to superintendents, normal teachers, etc., to be considered in the departments.

The programme of the General Association includes several of the most important educational questions of the day, and it is hoped that their discussion may elicit the best views and the ripest experience of the country. These fundamental questions are:

1. How can education be made universal? How shall the instruction of our schools be made to reach and bless every child of the republic? The discussion of this subject is to be opened by one who has given it careful and thorough consideration, and the views of others are solicited.

2. How can the schools be best supplied with trained and competent teachers? The American school is to be made more efficient chiefly by increasing the qualifications of the teacher. Elaborate systems and costly school-houses are not enough. The essential agent in education is the teacher. We hope that this "Normal Problem" may be thoroughly discussed, and some definite conclusion reached.

3. How can the qualifications of teachers be best determined? This question touches the administration of school systems. In most of the states teaching has no legal recognition as a profession. There should be a large body of professional teachers in every state, known and honored as such. The first step to secure this end is to place the examination in the hands of the profession. The next is a system of professional certificates. This subject is to be presented by Hon. JOHN SWETT, of California, who inaugurated a system there more just to the profession than that of any other state.

4. How can the higher education of woman be best provided for? The higher institutions of the country are considering this question, and it is an important one. The question is not whether women shall receive as thorough and broad an education as men. This is conceded, and woman has demonstrated her capacity to acquire such an education. The simple question is this:

Shall women be educated in our present colleges with men, or shall equally well endowed institutions be established for their education? It was hoped that President WHITE, of Cornell University, would present this subject, but a letter just received from him states that he can not be present.

Another question, and one which I should have stated first, is this: What is the duty of the public school with respect to moral training?—a vital question.

I trust that the discussion of these, and other important questions included in our programme, will make this meeting felt in all the future of American education. This Association has the opportunity to assist in shaping the systems of instruction which, in the future, are to give character to the American people. May this opportunity be well improved.

In conclusion, permit me to return to you my thanks for the honor of presiding over your deliberations on this occasion.

E. P. FROST, of Illinois, was appointed Assistant Secretary, and C. R. STUNTZ, of Ohio, and R. WOODBURY, of Maine, Assistant Treasurers.

Adjourned, to meet at 8 o'clock P.M., at the hall of the Lowell Institute.

### EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order by the President, who announced Rev. Dr. A. D. MAYO, of Cincinnati, as the lecturer for the evening, who delivered the following address:

#### METHODS OF MORAL INSTRUCTION IN COMMON SCHOOLS.

By the command of the President of the National Education Association, an authority I have learned, amid the duties and emergencies of educational life in the West, to implicitly obey, I appear before this illustrious body of teachers and friends of schools, to introduce a theme that lies at the foundation of human culture and human character; on the decision of which the existence of the American common school depends. I ask the indulgence, especially of you who are teachers, to some thoughts of an educational layman on *Methods of Moral Instruction in Common Schools*.

THE ERA OF METHODS.—We have fallen upon the era of methods in American education. During the last twenty years, our system of public instruction has been groping over the perilous bridge that leads from empiric to scientific methods; groping often in a dense fog, in the face of all the foes that can be summoned by popular ignorance and prejudice, led by people whose sole interest is to keep things as they are. It was natural that this examination of methods should begin at the base of primary instruction, analyze the mind of the child, and learn to bring it face to face with knowledge. That examination has brought us upon the highway to great and successful changes in our mental school discipline. Now we approach the more complex and important question of Methods in Moral Instruction. It is to a careful study of methods and a strict adherence to practical and natural ways of shaping character in the school-room that we must look for a solution of this vexed theme. If the



American People can be kept away from the fierce sectarian conflicts precipitated by the ultra ecclesiastical and the ultra secular parties in school affairs long enough to get their eye on a few principles and mature a few methods, we may hope to achieve all that wise men can reasonably expect of moral training from the state, and reconcile to our common-school system all except that impracticable squad that is the chronic gad-fly of Republican society.

WHAT IS THE COMMON SCHOOL?—We can not understand the real nature of this problem of Methods of Moral Instruction until we rid our minds of a huge drift of vague idealism concerning the province of the common school. In our American enthusiasm for popular culture, we are perpetually forgetting that the aim of our common system of state instruction is neither to develop a scholastic class nor to work up our young friend, Jonathan junior, into a seraph. The only ground on which we can take the people's money for public instruction is that the common school is the corner-stone of our national order of Republican society. The common school-house is not a manufactory of scholars or saints, but of good American citizens. George Washington and Abraham Lincoln were not scholars; Ben. Franklin and Andrew Jackson never claimed to be saints; but they were all, in characteristic ways, excellent types of American citizenship. To make good American citizens of American boys and girls, we have the right to do every thing a wise Republican statemanship may dictate. To make scholars, in the university sense, or to develop proselytes to any church, we have no right to appropriate a dollar of the people's money. Scholarship and sanctity alike are to be dealt with in the people's school just in the degree and to the extent that they minister to a lofty and progressive ideal of American citizenship and American character.

PUBLIC MORALS.—So we are brought down, in the common school, from the stupendous obligation of training souls for eternity to the sufficiently arduous undertaking of keeping the United States of America out of hell by educating American children into a virtuous citizenship as that is practically estimated by the people of every Christian country. This implies, of course, the full recognition by the common school of the existence, sovereignty and providence of Almighty God and the duty of all men and of the nation to love, worship and obey God, in all ways within the province of a government that has for ever repudiated the union of state and church. But the great stress in the common school will necessarily come upon the domain of morality. How to make our children unselfish, just, kind, pure, honest, truthful, lovers of all men, able to live in our order of American society resisting its awful temptations and seizing its grand opportunities, becoming such men and women as the Republic can intrust with her future:—this is the task set for the teachers in the American school-room.

CHRISTIAN MORALITY THE FOUNDATION OF THE REPUBLIC.—Of course, the morality taught and enforced in the discipline of the common school is the Christian morality as laid down in the four Gospels, according to its best public appreciation in Christian lands. Less than this we have no right to attempt; more than this we can not achieve. We can not teach an ancient Pagan, a Mohammedan or a Chinese ideal of morality in an American school. We can

not inculcate there the distinctive fatalistic morality of a materialistic science or an atheistic philosophy. All these types of morality are repugnant to the common sense and common life of the American people, whose whole order of society and ideas of living are the outgrowth of eighteen centuries of a progressive Christianity. The ideal public morality and religion of the people of the United States is the best attainable resumé of the public religion and morality of all the past of Christendom plus the American right to go to the Bible at first hand, think freely and judge conscientiously on all human affairs. In this broad sense, the ideal morality of the American common school-room is not the creed of any sectary or the conceit of any pedant who may teach therein, but the Christian morality as best apprehended by the Nation that establishes the school. This may be called indefinite; but it is as definite as any public ideal can be in a country where every thing finally hinges, not on a scholastic logic, but on the Christianized common sense of a people which, of all races and nations, has shown the best faculty of walking along dizzy places with a "level head."

So the problem before the common-school teacher in America is to hold before the child, by precept and example, in the most practical way, that Christian morality which is essential to high character in a true American man or woman and a good citizen of the United States.

THE TEACHER THE FUNDAMENTAL METHOD.—The fundamental method of moral instruction is to place in every school-room a teacher who is the incarnation of a profound, wise and inspiring Christian morality. Every method presupposes a living soul at the centre of operations, without which it is but a dead machine cut off from its motive power. The common-school certificates that were in use when I was a young pedagogue among the hills of old Massachusetts contained a clause asserting the "good moral character" of the candidate; and we suppose every code of American city school regulations to-day contains a similar requirement. But is not this side of the teachers' qualifications, in some quarters, falling into a mere negative significance? For the last twenty years the great stir in school affairs has been the elaboration of methods for imparting knowledge. The teacher of to-day is reminded hourly, by a cloud of witnesses, that she must not fail in scientific requirements and must be up to the highest demand in imparting knowledge. The fate of our unfortunate great-grandfathers and grandmothers who were captured by the Indians and forced to run the gauntlet was a feeble type of the experience of the city schoolmistress of to-day. First, she is coached for the Normal School; then ground through the "gang" of a dozen special millstones for her training in methods; meanwhile persecuted by a roomful of sharp boys in the "practice department"; always in range of a masked battery of normal trustees; the superintendent of schools, like Mr. Huxley's chess-playing fate, calmly looking on; the terrible board of examiners reposing, like veiled Eumenides, at the end of the vista. Once actually at work, as a young teacher, she is followed, like a weary soul in a dream, by incessant advice and drill, till life is hardly worth the living. This may all be essential in its way, though it some times reminds us of the style in which we used to capture butterflies in the meadows of Tully brook; clutching the flitting loveliness so fiercely at the end of the chase that there was nothing

left in our hot hand but a wreck of golden wings and a stain of yellow dust. Certainly, in this semi-insanity for intellectual methods we have too often forgotten that "one thing needful" without which no man or woman can become a real teacher of childhood—a profound religious and moral manhood and womanhood.

THE MOTIVE POWER OF THE TEACHER.—It is all the more true, because we are now forgetting it, that no body can become a fit teacher of American children without a deep, patient, enthusiastic love, founded on a religious faith in their spiritual nature as children of God, their moral obligation to God and man and the mighty issues, private and public, involved in their coming life. A mere animal fondness for childhood that lasts as long as teacher and pupil are in good health and spirits will not survive the hard rubs of the first week in a country district school. The intense enthusiasm for the mental culture of children often becomes a devouring flame in the school-room; consuming the souls and bodies of our little ones. There is no hardness of heart like that of the parent or teacher infuriated with ambition for the mental progress of a child. This rage for intellectual culture is the Moloch in the American school-room, into whose fiery arms we cast our loveliest and dearest with as little remorse as the Pagan devotee of old times. No man, especially no woman, is fit to look upon our children in the capacity of teacher who is not grounded in a living faith in God, the spiritual and immortal nature of the soul, the everlasting obligation of the moral law and the gospel of love as the grand motive power of human life. We propose neither ecclesiastical nor sectarian theological tests of moral and religious fitness in the teacher. But it is the solemn duty of school trustees and parents to know the religious character of every instructor; to labor in and out of season to overcome her moral deficiencies, and to relentlessly cut off every public servant who can not be brought to a sense of her high moral obligations as the guardian of an American child.

WOMAN IN THE SCHOOL-ROOM.—It would seem that Providence had opened the door for the most vital method of Moral Instruction by the peculiar organization of the American common school. Through a social crisis beyond our control, the instruction of children under twelve years of age (and that includes three-fourths of our common-school children) has almost entirely fallen into the hands of young women, and the tendency is now to advance women to higher posts of service. Could the Almighty Himself devise a more beautiful method of Moral Instruction than, on a May morning, to reveal a sweet, strong, healthy, wise young woman to a roomfull of restless children and leave teacher and scholars to their fate? In the magnetic presence of that charming school-mistress what becomes of all your prosy theories of "secular" "positive" development; of the right of the individual conscience in little Jonathan, Hermann, or Patrick, as against her conspiracy with the United States of America to make him a good boy? All "methods" in that woman's soul, just then, concentrate in the blessed opportunity of gathering that crowd of restless little creatures under the brooding wings of her love and holding them so closely to her heart that they shall "go no more out for ever." All "rights," to that mob of youngsters, suddenly culminate in the right to the smiles and love of the new

schoolmistress; the right to be petted and praised by her; to bring her flowers and hold on to her skirts as she walks home; to plunge into her confidence, tell her all their little toe-aches and great heart-aches; to make her umpire in their disputes, to claim her advice in all their whimsical little moral problems; to make her, in short, what the Catholic devotee makes her immaculate virgin, and in her beaming young womanhood to worship the spirit of holiness and beauty with the adoration of childhood. Beware of the boy who was never in love with his schoolmistress; he will become a man who will bear vigorous watching, even in the pulpit.

INCARNATE MORALITY.—I never read over one of those dry educational recipes, so much in vogue now-a-days, for growing that ideal "scientific" child whose mental faculties conveniently trail over the public school trellis, whose imagination scorns any but an æsthetic exposure to the sun, whose spiritual nature is only visible to his parents, his Sunday-school teacher, and his minister, without a picture leaping into my memory of an old yellow school-house perched on a great rock; Mt. Grace looking down from the northwest; a broad grassy common behind; time, high noon; the minister's daughter, the village schoolma'am, beating toward her dinner with fifty shouting specimens of young America running over her like a swarm of golden bees diving into a honey-comb, covering her with flowers, tearing her calico dress, pulling down her sweet face to be kissed, and only dropping her at her father's door, like an angel sadly in need of a short vacation in heaven from the exhaustion of saving souls on earth. That is the young American "Method of Moral Instruction in Common Schools";—to fasten on some good, gracious schoolmaster or schoolmistress, and drink the dear soul dry of all the wisdom and sweetness garnered within by a God of perfect love. "Oh," said a black-eyed, roguish western young American citizen of Hebrew descent, to his "critic teacher" who daily girdled her room of obstreperous boys up to the trial of being taught by the beginners from the Normal class, "*Oh, how we boys wish you were the mother of us all.*" His Hebrew "conscience" did n't suffer by taking the Christian moralities filtered through the loving soul of that gentle, decisive woman. The problem of methods in Moral Instruction will be solved by placing in every school-room in America a man or woman who can be the father or the mother of them all. The great apostle of French positivism came down from his dead tree-top of speculation and invented a new religion to take in one little woman who captured him, philosophy and all; and whatever impracticable theory of Religion and Moral Instruction we may force through rowdy city boards of education and print in the school regulations, we shall be compelled to let in the whole essence of the Christian morality and the soul of the New Testament upon every school-room whose threshold is consecrated by the foot of a teacher who knows her trust is the gift of God.

LIFE THE LESSON-BOOK.—Do you ask How can this woman teach the morality of love of man, love of country, love of every good thing that any good man does or is? How were you taught morals when you were a boy, running bare-foot, "wild as a hawk," and "smart as a steel-trap"? If a son of New England, you probably went to church twice every Sunday, sat in one of the

old square pews up in the gallery, and read Sunday-school books, caught flies, gazed yourself into a poet staring at the angels that sung "treble" and "counter" in the opposite gallery; not very conscious of the parson till he looked up from his "tenthly" and solemnly warned the boys up stairs to stop disturbing the people in their stately seats below. You got a little more religion and morality out of your Sunday-school teacher, if he or she knew why you were there. Not so often as the poets sing, but possibly your hard-working mother and father read the Bible with you, and held before your wandering mind the weighty matters of the law. But life was all the time turning up occasions with which the eternal principles of Christian morality alone could deal. You stole the plums and broke down the trees in the garden of your father's best customer; you eat all you could with your confederates, and threw the rest to the chickens; you were afraid to look into his carpenter's shop for a month, and plums felt like hot coals in your mouth; till one evening you saw him coming with a look on his face that said, "I know it all." After that trial before your father, your shame and tears, and his gracious forgiveness on promise of amendment, one principle of morality—"thou shalt not steal"—was stamped into you by a very efficient method. You disobeyed your mother and ran off to "go in swimming," and when you were pulled out of the mill-pond, as you were going down the third time, by the "hired man," and taken home, wrapped in your clothes, to your mother, who had not strength enough left to whip you, but cried over you like a baby, sat up all night to watch you, and kept her eye on you for a week like a nun upon her shrine; that "object lesson" on the commandment "Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land," was effectual. You were rough and abominable, as boys are apt to be, with your sisters. But one day the little sister of your best beloved playmate died, and when her mother took your hand and led you into a silent, twilight room, and you looked on the still, sweet face among the flowers in the coffin, and she said: "Now, always think of your little sisters when you remember this"; your sense of manhood's devotion to womanhood was born. You yielded to temptation one day at the Academy, and abused the privilege of studying out under the great elms to go into a frolic with a group of wild boys and girls, and your master said to you: "I looked to you to be an example to those inexperienced lads and misses and sent you into the yard because I trusted you." Did you ever yield to the devil's suggestion to abuse your influence over boyhood or girlhood after that?

Every common school in city or country is a miniature of human life. In doors or out of doors, every problem in morals comes up there for adjudication. The teacher is a judge in a court of morals, whether she will be or not. If she ignores this, the pivotal point in her duty, her little community swings off into moral and social anarchy. If she goes to her work with her soul anchored on the eternal verities, burning with love, awaiting every natural occasion to direct the affections, curb the passions, interpret the conduct, explore the nature of her little ones, establish in her republic perfect confidence in her justice; then will she teach morality in her school, as the afternoon sun lights up the valley below my window, pouring down into it a flood of light till every clump of elms stands out transfigured, and the far-off meadow is lifted up into an emerald paradise, and the silver thread of the river flashes in and out, and every

city roof is touched at its ideal point, and the glory brims over the solemn forests and pencils the fringes of pines off along the mountain ridge that blocks the horizon. In the light of her love and goodness, all things in that little realm of souls become new, and their daily life is a divine course of training in the moralities of the Sermon on the Mount, the Ten Commandments, and the Golden Rule.

**OBJECT TEACHING.**—The new methods of teaching open a wide door for the most effective Moral Instruction. A successful object lesson demands not only the mental contact of child and teacher, but the most vital interlocking of soul with soul. The characteristic merit of Oral and Object Training is that the spirit of the teacher, charged with her theme, is brought to bear like a battery upon the spirit of the child, awaking it to curiosity, coaxing, shocking, routing it from its lair of dullness, compelling it to concentrate its powers, and bringing it up fresh as the morning to a new revelation of nature and life. What an opportunity is this for moulding the character, implanting the living seeds of morality, linking the idea of mental culture with all that is inspiring and uplifting in the forming life of the child. But it is the constant peril of the system that it becomes utterly powerless without moral enthusiasm in the teacher. Of all dry and dusty performances in the school-room, the most deplorable is an object lesson given by a teacher who has no profound conception of childhood, no moral inspiration, no power to group her knowledge around a vital principle. And such will be every lesson given until she is filled with the thought of God at the centre of nature and the soul, and is able to lift her class through successive shocks of wonder and delight to an attitude of reverence for the Creator of all they see and know.

How admirably can the moral duties of childhood be inculcated by familiar oral lessons drawn from the common occurrences of the family, the school, the street; from a picture, a parable, a sunny day, a snow-storm. All that is needed is a teacher filled to the depths of the soul with the love of her children; with a woman's tact seizing every thing in the life of her little world as an occasion of Moral Instruction. Our new method of Object and Oral Training is still on trial. Unless we can place in our schools a class of teachers with a higher grade of mental vitality, moral enthusiasm, and mature comprehension of the needs of childhood, it will drag down our little ones to a generation of human earth-worms in stead of exalting them to living souls. If along with it we can insist on a nobler outfit of soul-power, spiritual life, it will mightily rejuvenate our National schools and refresh the American character.

**SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.**—The discipline of the common school is always a method of moral or immoral instruction. Here, finally, that pet chimera of modern educational speculators, "secular instruction," breaks down. A teacher perpetually warned off the premises of religious and moral instruction can have no system of discipline except the switch. There are but two radical ways of governing a child; for the whole system of intermediate, prudential considerations which partially restrain adult people is beyond the range of childhood. You can impose a law on the sole foundation of your personal authority and coax or thrash a school-room full of children into its formal obedience. Or, you can awaken the religious sense of right and wrong; arouse the conscience, the

instinct of justice and order; and while you preserve needful discipline, educate your scholars into the highest wisdom of living with their fellow beings in society as responsible to God and the moral law. In her ideal of discipline, her estimate of child-nature, the class of rules established, her effort to head off transgression, her modes of punishment, her endeavor to create the sense of moral obligation, especially in her resolve to be herself just in all things, the teacher covers the whole ground of moral and religious instruction. No more fatal injury can be done to a child in his school-life than to teach him formal obedience to law from the mere hope of personal reward or the fear of punishment; or, generally, to govern him by motives that begin and end in himself. Yet, thousands of school-children in America are thus degraded in the school; led through a life of slavish and sordid obedience up to the point where they are launched upon the ocean of American citizenship. If we expect to train our children for freemen, we must teach them to obey law and conform to social order from motives that are rooted in the Christian morality. Otherwise, it may even be doubtful whether the little knowledge they gain in their school-years will compensate for the mean and materialistic type of character that comes through a discipline in which the whole upper side of life is ignored.

Our young women teachers, especially, need a firmer grasp of moral ideas to preserve them from the besetting vices of feminine school discipline. We have often observed that boys, in the higher grades of district schools, have a constant suspicion of injustice in their women teachers. Their instinct of shrewd observation tells them that these immature young women often try to propel their school-room by miscellaneous enthusiasm, capricious sentiment, or a gushing affectionateness alternating with a nervous petulance. Something of this is due to the woman's physical temperament; something to the overworked condition of female teachers; but more to the lack of serious and consistent reflection on morality. Justice is the bread and meat of school discipline, and no elation of brilliant, highstrung or ornamental sentiment can take its place. The discipline is the centre of school-life, and it may become a consummate method of moral instruction.

**INSTRUCTION IN PATRIOTISM.**—The teacher in the common school of the United States should perpetually emphasize the importance of a patriotism grounded in a lofty Christian morality.

Morality and patriotism are inseparable twins in a land like ours, where citizenship is the free acting-out of personal character. We were taught in the late civil war that no community in which the common school had been fairly established and used for two generations was disloyal to the government. The common school of those generations enforced moral training even more than at present; and we must still rely upon it as the most vital public agency for instruction in social and civil morality.

One of the most portentous signs of the day is the decay of social and civil morality. The terrible disorganization of individual and social character by the war; the speculative insanity of trade, tossed on the waves of a revolutionary epoch; the undermining of the family relations over a whole continent; the sudden rise of the West in military and political power; the tremendous impetus to human liberty by the abolition of negro slavery; the swarming of our

shores by immigrants from the adventurous class of every land; all these are drifting the American people far out to sea in their ideals of social and civil morality.

Indeed, we have become so accustomed to magnify the rights of the individual man that large classes of people have almost forgotten there is such a thing as national character, social and civil morality, apart from the moral caprice of this or that man. Why can half a score of western states drift into a style of divorce laws that virtually leaves the family at the mercy of any judge of common pleas? Why has our government tolerated a beastly Mormon polygamy for twenty years? Why must a great city and state, like New York, abounding in good people and good institutions, submit year after year to the rule of a den of thieves, and even find itself well-nigh powerless to unhorse Saint Tammany a year after the shameful truth is known? How does it happen that a dozen railroad corporations are now wielding a more despotic power over the people of the United States than the nobility of Great Britain over the British empire? The answer is open. We are losing firm hold on that social and civil Christian Morality without which patriotism in this Republic is only another name for a godless pride, and a desolating ambition.

The family can not be relied upon, wholly or chiefly, to teach social and civil morality; for the family is essentially exclusive, and deals with personal character. The churches have each their type of ecclesiastical morality, and some of them would gladly change this government to an Anglican or Roman Catholic ecclesiastical empire. The common school is the university where the masses of American children should be taught the fundamental principles of Christian morality as applied to society, business, public life. For the common school is a miniature of American society; a democracy in which each child stands on his own merits, where youth of all sorts must learn to live together in harmony and work for a common end; and it is a success or a failure as it is pervaded by a lofty or a low public opinion.

Here, then, is the place, of all others, to inculcate, in season and out of season, the great industrial, social and civic virtues of honesty, chastity, truthfulness, justice, responsibility for social order; all the moral safeguards of national life. By wise precept; by examples drawn from the public life of the community; by the vital study of the history of the United States, enforced with biographical lessons on the characters of noble Americans; by showing the children how they are now helping to fashion the school as they will their country by and by; by using festival days and all fit occasions to arouse their enthusiasm for their country's true glory; can this be achieved.

We can not overrate the value of a knowledge of actual American life to the young women who preside in our national school. For we are compelled to ask: Do not, some times, our Girls' High and Normal Schools, especially private female seminaries, give to the future teachers of children a style of training that quite unfits them for this discrimination? They are inspired by the glorification of a merely literary and æsthetic culture into that type of highly-wrought, oversensitive, exclusive, cultivated young-ladyhood that is the poorest moral outfit for the American teacher. Multitudes of young women go into our public schools from these higher seminaries, not only lamentably ignorant, but almost contemptuous of our common American life; uninstructed



in the history and uninformed of the real condition of their own country; their reading scornful of any thing less lofty than the last popular poem or the new theory of science; exclusive in their social tastes to the point of a fastidious shrinking from all save cultivated people; very charming young women as the daughters of wealthy families, able to choose their lot in life; well-nigh useless as moral and social guides of the motley crowd of youngsters who daily resort to them to be moulded into citizenship in the United States of America. There is a class of high educational functionaries who are responsible for this abuse of the education of the girls who are to become our common-school teachers. No principal is fit to preside over a Girls' Normal or High School who can not go outside this scholastic ideal of young-ladyhood, know clearly what a country we live in and what is the actual condition of the children these young women must teach and guide. But any generous-minded and conscientious teacher may rise above this disadvantage of false culture, and, by the wise use of her Bible as a moral ideal, and the study of American History, the newspaper, and the common life of the people, come to a rational understanding of the actual moral problem in her school-room. All this implies the presence of common sense, for without common sense at every point it is as wild a fancy to demand success in the school-room as for the young housekeeper to hope for a triumph in concocting her first dinner by a "civil service examination" in the excellent cook-book of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe.

THE BIBLE THE TEXT-BOOK OF MORALS.—The time may come when a series of simple text-books in morals may be introduced into our common schools as an aid to the teacher. But the great text-book of American morals is the Holy Bible; and the crusade that is now being preached against the use of the Bible there, when rightly understood, is seen to be founded on a total misapprehension of our institutions and, if successful, may destroy the American common school. The only demand which a Catholic, Hebrew, Pagan or skeptical parent can make with a show of justice is, that his children shall not be compelled to engage in a devotional service of which the reading of the Bible is a part; and the logic by which even this is urged would dissolve republican government on the "conscientious scruples" of any minority. It may be expedient (as has already been done, for years, in Cincinnati, New York, and other cities) to excuse the children of oversensitive parents from participation in even this simple, unsectarian service. *But when these parents attempt to deprive the children of a vast majority of the people—that majority, too, which established and must always be relied on to uphold the common school—of such a privilege, they inaugurate a public injustice that should be resisted to the last extremity.*

But the most valuable use of the Bible in the school-room, perhaps, is not its reading as a part of a devotional service; and this is the only use that has been largely objected to. *The Bible should be kept in the common-school room as the text-book of morals.* It bears the same relation to the innumerable moral questions that arise there as the grammar and dictionary to the study of the English language. No wise teacher would cram his pupils with Worcester or Webster, Unabridged, or force the Grammar upon them as an abstract study. No wise instructor would teach school-boys and girls the whole truth about Physiology. No body but a pedant or a bigot would go on shooting into little

children, day by day, the Bible, read as a whole, in a dry, superficial exercise. But a wise teacher of high character will perpetually use the civilized world's book of morals, in a way to avoid sectarian prejudices and a sensitive conscience, to vitalize his own precepts and enforce the daily moralities of the school-room.

The passages quoted from the Bible in our school readers are invaluable specimens of pure and lofty English and perfect moral lessons. They are often more effective to children as selections than when read, in course, in the Bible itself. The teacher needs the constant reading of the word of God for strength and inspiration in her arduous work. A moral precept from the Proverbs or the Sermon on the Mount, written on the blackboard; a snatch of a Psalm, hung up as an illuminated motto; a reference to some stirring passage in a case of discipline; a talk with the school on the Golden Rule, the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer; a promise of heavenly consolation brought out for some despondent or bereaved child; the wise and vital use of that divine treasury of wisdom and love will be such a help as only they who have long known its value can well understand. No American citizen has the moral right to insist that the Bible shall not be placed in the school-room as the text-book of morality and wisely used, on every occasion when a judicious teacher can apply it, in the formation of character. And if it be said that teachers competent to this use are not easily found, I reply, any teacher so incompetent is unfit to be intrusted with the education of fifty American children for a single day.

**MUSIC AND MORALS.**—It is unnecessary to tell a people whose hearts are yet thrilling with the great International Jubilee that Music is one of the most subtle and powerful methods of moral instruction. There is nothing in this world like the singing of children; and no where do children sing as in our common schools. In the home, the choir, the concert, the Sunday school, we oftenest hear the harmony of children trained in similar conditions of society. But when a hundred little ones, called to the school-house from the palace and the cellar, from all civilized lands, representing every human grade of culture and faith, unite in a patriotic song, or a grand, simple religious hymn; then voices are heard calling out from that deep of music to the far-off future, and he must be indeed a barbarian who is not moved out of himself thereby.

A rigid reform is demanded in the selection of music for our common schools. A great deal of it is puerile, too much is beyond the capacity of children, some of it can be accounted for only by the perverse desire of the special teacher to exhibit his musical menagerie. We need more songs of home, of country, of simple praise to God and love to man. We need less drill over the science of music and more actual singing that shall knit together the souls of the scholars into a loving community.

I know not how I should have lived through ten years of the strange experiences and crushing and confusing toils of professional life in a great western city, could I not have been almost every day lifted up and cheered by the wonderful singing of the children in the Cincinnati Common Schools. For often, when every thing in that turbid drift of humanity we call society in the valley of the Ohio seemed whirling beyond my power, and I could not see ahead the length of the ship I steered, on passing a school-house, a wave of song would

come surging out through an open window, hushing the noisy street, arresting the hurrying crowd; as if the gates of the better-land had swung half-open and for a moment we heard the dwellers within chanting—"Glory to God in the Highest, and on earth peace, good will to men." Marry your highest moralities to childhood's music, and young America may yet sing itself within sight of the millennium in this New World.

MORAL SUPERVISION.—But I shall not expect any great advance in Moral Instruction while the moral discipline of the common school is left as exclusively to the teachers as now. All classes of men, and women too, become despotic, whimsical or formal if unwatched, and no class needs such vigilant observation to-day in the United States as the teachers in the common school. The mass of the teachers in these schools are still young girls, often without experience in life, generally of humble and narrow social antecedents, rarely of large mental, much less of wide moral discipline. The men who superintend them are not better than other professional men, and are under peculiar temptations to petty tyranny and the imposition of their own personal conceits upon their subordinates and pupils. Our boards of education are generally composed of men too busy to know what is going on in the school-room, and their moral oversight of the school consists in drawing up an elaborate code of regulations, leaving the masters to obey or evade them as they choose. Not many parents visit the common schools regularly, and few understand what is really done when they are present. *The imperative need of these great schools to-day is some mode of common-sense moral supervision by people of high character and wise judgment concerning children.*

And is not here a providential opening for the service of the state by the noblest women of our country? If, in some practical way, the best women in every city or village, women whose moral influence and position are established, could be brought in more frequent contact with these young teachers of our common schools; give them suggestions concerning the health and management of children; advise with them on difficult cases of discipline; cheer them, as only a wise, motherly woman can cheer the soul of an overworked girl; mediate between them and dissatisfied parents; look in often upon the school-room, and in ways that would perpetually suggest themselves try to promote the moral discipline of the children's community; what a new light would dawn on this realm of toil and confusion. Here is a region where the wisest men can do far less than women, and where men now, often immoral or negligent, are left almost alone. This can not be fully accomplished by electing women to boards of education; for the class of women fit for this work could not often be elected. Our Christian women should voluntarily take up this work, not in a sensational and aggressive, but in a quiet persistent way that will commend itself to every right-minded parent. There are perils connected with the education of the sexes together in common schools that can not be overborne by chivalrous rhetoric. There are schools to-day in many a city of our land that are moral pest-houses, and every experienced teacher or superintendent knows that a thousand boys and girls in a great school-house must be guarded with eternal vigilance against evil from within and without.

**THE MORAL LOBBY.**—When I lived in Albany, New York, and used to watch the legislature of that state, I always noticed that when things were “going to the bad” a set of men appeared on the scene that might be called the “Moral Lobby”; men of commanding influence and character in various localities; and it was a very bad crowd inside the rails that could n’t be persuaded or frightened into somewhat of decency by that apparition. If American public life, including school life, is to be kept up to the mark of a high morality for the next generation, it must be by this Moral Lobby; the voluntary service of the best people outside official life, claiming and exercising the right to overlook and influence public administration. The Devil’s lobby always surrounds the common school, and the teacher is often powerless against it. But with such a consecration to the public good as every true woman in America should feel, a social and moral supervision could be maintained over our common schools that would tell mightily on the future life of our children.

**THE STATE UNIVERSITY.**—The style of Moral Instruction that gets uppermost in common schools will finally mould the type of character in our Free State Universities. And here is already arising a grave question concerning the type of manhood and womanhood fashioned by these popular and powerful institutions. We demand the system of state ecclesiastical intolerance that so long closed the great National Universities of Great Britain to dissenters. Yet, with all these drawbacks, what a noble race of men has come forth from those old universities and schools; grounded in religion and morality, fashioned to lead the great constitutional government of Europe to its present exalted place as the advocate of peace against the imperial powers of the world. Let us beware lest, while exulting in our freedom from civil and religious bigotry, our free High Schools and Universities become the prey of that materialistic lunacy which is now the most desperate enemy of the human race in every land. And if we are to make this American institution of free education beyond question the ally of the upper side of private and public life in the Republic, we must be up and doing, or they who come after us may be forced to reconstruct what we have left to drift upon another revolution.

**SPIRIT OF THE SCHOOL.**—It may be that what I have now said appears indefinite and sets forth no new special methods. But methods of Moral Instruction, by the very nature of the subject, must be greatly a matter of experience with the teacher. Moral Instruction can hardly be made a rigid specialty in common schools, but must be the overwatching spirit, the informing life of all methods of instruction and discipline. Its seat is the soul of the teacher, its grand method outlined throughout the whole organization of the school. It must travel on with every thing else, and its results will be seen in the gradual uplifting of the whole type of school character and conduct, in the raised ideals and the finer aspirations of the community of children. God’s way of lighting up the world on a summer morning is not to turn a jet of celestial gas upon every hill and stream and forest, but to roll the sun over the eastern horizon and awaken earth and sky and ocean to a glory that transforms creation, and leads on the day through marvelous gradations of shadow and light. The divine method of Moral Instruction in a Common School is that a cultivated

and consecrated man or woman should rise upon it, at nine o'clock in the morning, and lead it through light and shadow, breeze and calm, tempest and tranquillity, to the end. All special methods will flow out of him as the hours of the day mark the course of the sun through the vault of heaven. In proportion as the teacher is taught of God and abides in the higher life of love will it be known that Moral Instruction is the soul of the school. The glowing face of many a teacher, so gifted, has shone out of this patient assembly as I have looked upon it to-night. You, dear friends, know how far below the truth has been the best thing I have said. But you can be trusted to proclaim and live this gospel of Moral Instruction. To you I leave my theme. In your faithful souls it will fructify. Under your life-imparting hands it will become "a tree whose leaves shall be for the healing of the nations" through all the years to come.

#### DISCUSSION.

*The President.* The presentation of this topic so convincingly and so impressively must, I think, have satisfied you all that this is one of the vital educational questions which now confront the American people. In the recent discussion in the country of the Bible issue, the principle was broadly stated that the cultivation of the intelligence is the exclusive province of the public school. The acceptance of this doctrine as a fundamental principle would be the destruction of the American school system. The true function of the public school is wider than the intellect. The right moral training of the pupil is the first and highest duty of the teacher. If we can agree on this, we shall take one important step out of difficulty. In my judgment, all teaching that fails to touch the heart, to make the conscience regal, fails in its highest office. I have invited two gentlemen to follow in brief speeches, and, after they have spoken, others will have an opportunity to express their views. I will first call upon President GREGORY, of the Illinois Industrial University, who for many years stood at the head of the school system of the State of Michigan.

*Dr. J. M. Gregory.* Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen: The address to which we have listened has scarcely left a word to be said. It has exhausted the whole topic. As the artist—for I can scarcely call him otherwise—the artist as well as orator, was painting his picture, I did hope he would leave, if not some prominent feature, at least one little finger for some body to add to it; but he has left me nothing. All I can possibly do will be to step to the picture and put a little varnish over it; not to adorn it, but to preserve it, for ever, if possible, from fading out of our memories. (Applause.) It has been full of points, but none which come in my direction, and with which I could take issue.

If I could make the ideas presented bear the mark of the school-room, so that you shall, each and every one of you, take and apply them there, I should have done better service than I ever did in my lifetime before in the way of advocating moral education.

It is true, as has been so justly indicated, that without the moral element in the education of the citizenship of this country, in the common schools, there is no just claim on which our school system can be maintained as a public school system. For, unless these schools do make better citizens, citizens who can be

trusted, whose patriotism and whose integrity will stand by all public and private duty—whatever else we may teach, and however we may cultivate the intellect to help men earn their living, we can scarcely justify these schools, which tax the states more than all other public taxes taken together. I know that intelligence fits men to take care of themselves; and I know that, inasmuch as virtue is logical and vice illogical, intelligence will tend to make men virtuous, and ignorance the contrary. SOCRATES was right in this; but I know that if nothing but intelligence is relied upon to give the moral character that shall make good citizens, we trust to a rope of sand, or a broken reed that shall pierce us in our time of trial.

The history of nations has over and over again demonstrated the fact that simple intellectual culture, or simple increase of knowledge, will not, in and of itself, make a people moral and upright. The power of self-love is stronger than the love of others, and the power of a present passion more pressing than any abstract knowledge of right. Nay, further, in proportion as you push the intellectual culture of any people, and thus cultivate their sensibilities, you deliver them over to the temptations that gather around them, unless you give a corresponding moral culture. It did not need heavy flanges on the car-wheels when the rate of speed was only ten miles an hour; but when the trains run forty miles the hour, then they need every mechanical protection that it is possible to give them to prevent their running from the track. And if you add vigor and strength to the public life, if you increase the rush of daily events, you must add also a restraining moral power, or you will reap ruin where you looked for beneficent success.

Another point: Some kind of moral education is inevitable. It is impossible to send the intellect of a child to school and keep the heart at home. You can not send one part of the nature without sending the whole. Nay, more: you can not touch one cord in our curious nature and the others do not vibrate. You can not increase the strength and reach of the intellect, so that it shall look with a larger scope over life, without bringing a thousand new objects to tempt the appetite, a thousand possibilities of immoral indulgence. It is, therefore, a matter of stern necessity with us not to adjourn this moral education. One might as well expect to keep life in the body without the flow of blood.

I remember my first visit to the schools of Boston; I remember how there came that day the rousing, thrilling, terrible report that the Lawrence Mill had fallen, and that hundreds were in the ruins. What was the trouble with the Lawrence Mill? It was said afterward, I do not know how true it was, that upon examination it was found that one of the iron pillars by which the several stories had been supported had been so badly cast that the core was not concentric with the rest. It was fair to the view, apparently all sound iron, with no break or crack in it. But there came a moment when some sudden shock revealed the fatal defect, and, the supporting column being crushed, the immense edifice fell, and buried beneath its ruins those who had trusted to it for safety. So, we are casting in the school-rooms the pillars of the state, young souls on whom the future of the republic must rest. Let us make the core concentric. Let us put the heart into education in due place and measure. If we do not, then let us be certain there will come a time when the history of the crumbling

state will record that the founders did not do their duty, that the columns of character were cast one-sided and weak.

But if we can do our work properly, we can bid defiance to every danger. We need not fear any thing that may come. We shall have put within the hearts of the children of the republic a guaranty for its safety, a palladium of its future existence, its perpetuity, its progress and power. Write the principles of republican liberty, write the doctrines of the fathers, upon the heart of each single American child, boy or girl, and then will the dissolution of the Union be impossible.

*Hon. Joseph White*, Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education. When, three years ago, I think it was, in reply to some poor remarks of mine, at the annual meeting of this Association at Trenton, on this topic, a distinguished gentleman, not now living, uttered this sentiment, the Public School for intellectual education, and the Church for moral and spiritual education, and that great educational meeting clapped their hands, I sank down with a feeling of despondency and depression,—not because my poor speech was derided, but because I felt there was a heresy in the minds of the teachers which must be rooted out, if we would preserve our American public schools. I thank God that I am permitted to live these three years and to listen to-night to the doctrines of the address presented by our eloquent friend from Cincinnati, whose words, as given to us to-night and as he has published them before, will live as long as the English language is taught to our children. I believe that if such ideas, with such a spirit, control the American teacher, the republic is safe; without them, notwithstanding all our glorious history, we shall die the death of the people who have gone before us. My creed is a brief one, and it is not mine, but that of a leading mind now gone to his rest (*Hon. JOSIAH QUINCY*): "There can be no freedom without morality; there can be no morality without religion; there can be no religion without the Bible."

My friend has explained this beautifully, and has given us the truth, which has been growing on my mind for the last twelve years, in the service of education, that the only true teacher is the teacher of morals; and I may go further, and say that the only true teacher of the intellect is a thoroughly-informed man or woman. It is the man or the woman that makes the impression, and not the marks upon the blackboard; it is the living, breathing words of man or woman, whether it be of the morals or the intellect. Who made Rugby School? *THOMAS ARNOLD*. Who made Lady *JANE GREY*? *ROGER ASCHAM*. Whatever the American character has in it to-day, that is worth any thing, is from the character of a man. Is America in advance in diplomacy to-day; is America generous to her enemies to-day; is American citizenship self-sacrificing to-day; where but in the mind of the model man, the great and good *WASHINGTON*, do you find that which has conducted her up to that point?

There is a cry abroad, which is heard also in England, no where more so, than our systems of public instruction are a failure, and the people are setting themselves to devise new methods. Our legislative halls are besieged for more aid to industrial schools. It is not by teaching arithmetic or any thing of that kind that we are to make the republic; it is by making character. This done, and the Christian civilization of the nineteenth will be in advance of that of

the tenth century, and that of the twentieth will be in advance of the nineteenth. This failing, our civilization will turn backward upon itself, and God will select other people and other nations to carry on the great work of elevating this world.

The following-named gentlemen and ladies were appointed a committee to nominate officers for the coming year:

WARREN JOHNSON, Maine.	J. HODGSON, Alabama.
J. H. FRENCH, Vermont.	W. N. HAILMAN, Kentucky.
D. B. HAGAR, Massachusetts.	Miss H. E. HASSLOCK, Tennessee.
J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.	W. D. HENKLE, Ohio.
Mrs. M. A. STONE, Connecticut.	J. NEWBY, Indiana.
N. A. CALKINS, New York.	J. ESTABROOK, Michigan.
ADOLPH DOUAL, New Jersey.	E. C. HEWETT, Illinois.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.	J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.
M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.	H. B. WILSON, Minnesota.
A. L. BARBOUR, District of Columbia.	J. ARMSTRONG, Iowa.
J. H. BINFORD, Virginia.	G. P. BEARD, Missouri.
S. G. STEVENS, West Virginia.	N. P. GATES, Arkansas.
WM. H. BAKER, Georgia.	JOHN SWETT, California.

The Association then adjourned.

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## SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

### MORNING SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, AUG. 7.

The Association was called to order by the President. Prayer was offered by Rev. D. A. WALLACE, of Illinois. A committee consisting of Miss H. A. CUMMINGS, Missouri; Mrs. M. A. STONE, Connecticut; H. D. PIERCE, New Jersey; D. N. CAMP, Connecticut; and A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts, was appointed for the purpose of bringing together teachers seeking positions and parties desiring to employ teachers.

Messrs. Z. RICHARDS, D.C.; N. A. CALKINS, New York; C. C. ROUNDS, Maine; J. B. MERWIN, Missouri; I. N. CARLTON, Connecticut; J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin; and N. T. LUPTON, Alabama, were appointed a Committee on Resolutions.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology extended to the Association an invitation to visit its rooms. The invitation was accepted and a vote of thanks was returned.

A communication was received from the Committee of Arrangements for the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association, inviting this Association to meet that body at its session in Philadelphia, on the 20th, 21st and 22d inst.

Dr. J. W. HOYT, of Wisconsin, Chairman of the Committee on a National University, presented a verbal report on the action of that committee during the past year.



The Committee on "The System of Normal Training Schools best adapted to the wants of our people" presented the following report, through its chairman, Prof. Wm. F. PHELPS, of Minnesota.

#### REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

It is one of the most cheering signs of the times that the subject of the Professional Training of Teachers occupies so liberal a share of attention in the deliberations of this body.

Your committee regard this fact as an indication that a question so vital to the interests of universal education is beginning to be appreciated at its true value, not only by the representative educators of the country, but also by the masses of our people, upon whose cordial support, after all, the success of every measure affecting their interests must largely depend.

At a meeting of the Association held at Cleveland in 1870, a report was presented by a duly-authorized committee on "A Course of Study for Normal Schools." This report will be found at length in the volume of proceedings, and also in that of the United States Commissioner of Education for the same year. It discussed somewhat at length the deficiencies and the pressing needs of elementary education in this country, and took strong ground in favor of a gradation of Teachers' Seminaries corresponding, to some extent, with the grades in our systems of public instruction. It also urged that an increase of these institutions must take place commensurate with the vast proportions which the common school system of the country has assumed. It closed by submitting an outline of such a course of study and training as seemed suitable for what was styled an elementary normal school. It deferred to a future time the consideration of a curriculum and plan of organization for a higher normal school, an agency which the report claimed was needed for the special preparation of those teachers who are destined to occupy the more advanced positions in our public school system, such as teachers of high schools, superintendents of schools, and the like.

At the same session, an able paper was read by Mr. WHITE, of Illinois, on "The Means of Providing the mass of Teachers with Professional Instruction," the aim of which was to show, as it did show most conclusively, that our normal schools, as at present existing, are totally inadequate in number to supply the needs of the people for trained skill in the education of their children. It urged that in some way the system must be expanded to an extent sufficient to meet this urgent and rapidly-growing public want. Mr. WHITE's paper was also published in the two volumes to which reference has already been made. These documents excited the deepest interest, and led to a prolonged and earnest discussion. The committee refer to them here in order to avoid the seeming necessity for a rediscussion of many topics germane to our present purpose, as well as to present a connected history of this body during the past two years upon the important subject under consideration.

At the meeting held in Saint Louis last year, the necessity for a greater expansion of the means for the professional training of teachers was urged in a paper entitled "The Normal School Problem," by Mr. PHILBRICK, of Boston; and still another was announced, but not read, by Mr. VERRILL, of Pennsylv-

nia, on "A Graded System of Normal Schools." The voluntary selection of these topics by gentlemen representing widely-separated states, together with the discussion which succeeded their presentation, gave additional assurance of a wide-spread and growing conviction throughout the country that *in the careful special preparation of the great mass of our teachers we must find the key to success in the work of universal education.*

Another fact of importance in this connection, as indicating the drift of opinion throughout the country, is the greatly-augmented discussion of the normal school problem in our current educational periodicals. But a few years since, the subject was only occasionally alluded to in a few of the journals devoted to education. To-day it forms so conspicuous a topic, that scarcely a monthly issue appears in any part of the country that does not give more or less emphasis to the sentiment that this is not only the *turning point*, but the *vital point*, in all our efforts for the education of the people.

The cry has gone forth, and is taking fast hold of the public mind, that, as a nation, "We must educate, or perish." Coincidentally with this, we must proclaim, if need be from the housetops, that *unless we can raise up whole generations of able, skillful, devoted teachers, we can not educate.* *The Teacher*, *THE TEACHER*, is the primum mobile in the work of educating the people. The history of education in every land demonstrates no truth more conclusively than this. Let us take heed thereunto and be wise.

There is one more historical fact connected with the subject we are considering which can not well be overlooked. We refer to the unprecedented growth of the Normal School System in this country as compared with professional schools of every other class among us. It is only a single generation since their advent upon our soil, under the auspices of this noble old commonwealth of Massachusetts, alike the mother of American education and the mother of states—the mother of states *because* the mother of popular education on this continent.

It is a noteworthy coincidence that the conflict for our national independence and the conflict for our normal schools began at Lexington, and that both of these struggles were long and bitter, continuing for nearly seven years, with the issue often doubtful. The first school was opened in July, 1839, under the care of "good old Father PIERCE," as his pupils and contemporary teachers delighted to call him. He was a man whose character was fitly delineated by the poet in the sentence,

"None knew him but to love him,  
None named him but to praise."

There were three of these pioneer normal schools of Massachusetts, located respectively at Lexington—afterward at West Newton,—Westfield, and Bridgewater. These schools were nursed into being, protected and defended, by another man, whose faith and hope and charity, combined with his tenacity of purpose, could never falter. That man was HORACE MANN, whose name will ever brighten in the memory of the generations as the years roll on. And still another was NICHOLAS TILLINGHAST, the first Principal of the State Normal School at Bridgewater, whose image is enshrined in a thousand grateful hearts.

As an indication of the fierceness of the struggle through which these schools were compelled to pass, and as illustrative of the more than Spartan courage of

their illustrious champion, we venture to make one or two quotations from a remarkable speech of Mr. MANN, in August, 1846, seven years after the opening of the first school at Lexington. It was on the occasion of the dedication of the State Normal School-house at Bridgewater. He says, "Among all the lights and shadows that have ever crossed my path, this day's radiance is the brightest. Two years ago I would have been willing to compromise for ten years' work as hard as any I had ever performed to have been insured that at the end of that period, I should see what our eyes this day behold. We now witness the completion of a new and beautiful normal-school house for the State Normal School at Bridgewater. One fortnight from to-morrow another house as beautiful as this is to be dedicated at Westfield, for the State Normal School at that place. West Newton is already provided for by private munificence. Each Normal School will then occupy a house neat, commodious, and well adapted to its wants; and the principals of the schools will be relieved from the annoyance of keeping a Normal School in an abnormal house."

Mr. MANN further remarks:

"I shall not even advert to the painful causes which hastened this most desirable consummation, since what was meant for evil has resulted in so much good. Let me, however, say to you, as the moral of this result, that it strengthens in my own mind what I have always felt; and I hope it will strengthen or create in *your* minds a repugnance to that sickly and cowardly sentiment of the poet which made him long

"For a lodge in some vast wilderness,  
Some boundless contiguity of shade,  
Where rumor of oppression and deceit,  
Of unsuccessful or successful wars,  
Might never reach him more."

"There is oppression in the world which almost crushes the life out of humanity. There is deceit which not only ensnares the unwary, but almost abolishes the security and confidence and delight which rational and social beings ought to enjoy in their intercourse with each other. There are wars, and the question whether they are right or wrong tortures the good man a thousand times more than any successes of either belligerent. But the feeling which springs up spontaneously in *my* mind, and which I hope springs up spontaneously in *your* minds, my friends, in view of the errors and calamities and iniquities of the race, is *not* to flee from the world, but to remain in it; not to hie away to forest solitudes or hermit cells, but to confront selfishness and wickedness and ignorance at whatever personal peril, and to subdue and extirpate them, or to die in the attempt. Had it not been for a feeling like this among your friends, and the friends of the sacred cause of education in which you have enlisted, you well know that the Normal Schools of Massachusetts would have been put down, and that this day never would have shone to gladden our hearts and to reward our toils and sacrifices. Let no man who knows not what has been suffered, what has been borne and forborne, to bring to pass the present event, accuse me of an extravagance of joy.

"I consider this event as marking an era in the progress of education—which we all know is the progress of civilization—on this western continent and throughout the world. It is the completion of the first Normal school-house

ever erected in Massachusetts,—in the Union,—in this hemisphere. It belongs to that class of events which may happen once, but are incapable of being repeated."

There is one more paragraph in this famous speech which we can not resist the temptation to quote, on account of its pertinency to the subject we are discussing:

"I believe," says Mr. MANN, "that Normal Schools are a new instrumentality in the advancement of the race. I believe that without them free schools themselves will be shorn of their strength and their healing power, and will at length become mere charity schools, and thus die out in fact and in form. Neither the art of printing, nor the trial by jury, nor a free press, nor free suffrage, can long exist to any beneficial and salutary purpose without schools for the training of teachers; for, if the character and qualifications of teachers be allowed to degenerate, the free schools will become pauper schools, and the pauper schools will produce pauper souls; and the free press will become a false and licentious press, and ignorant voters will become venal voters; and, through the medium and guise of republican forms, an oligarchy of profligate and flagitious men will govern the land; nay, the universal diffusion and ultimate triumph of all-glorious Christianity itself must await the time when knowledge shall be diffused among men through the instrumentality of good schools. Coiled up in this institution as in a spring, there is a vigor whose uncoiling may wheel the spheres."

With such championship, by a man inspired with such ideas and gifted with such matchless eloquence, there could be no such word as fail. With his prophetic eye, Mr. MANN foresaw that *the success of this experiment would be the triumph of a great and vital principle of educational policy on the American Continent*, and that a new era would dawn upon the cause of American popular education.

In the year 1858 the second meeting of the American Normal-School Association was held, at Trenton, New Jersey, another dual battle-field, at which Mr. MANN was urged to be present. In a characteristic letter to the President of that Association, written but a short time before his death, occurs the following passage, which indicates his undiminished faith in the triumph of this new instrumentality for which he had so long and so heroically struggled. "How vividly do I remember the time when this cause emitted its first glimmering twilight ray! Now its glorious orb is ascending toward the meridian." How fully his faith and his prophecy have been vindicated by the logic of events, let facts determine. Four training schools for teachers are now in successful operation in Massachusetts alone. New York, which was the first state to follow the example of Massachusetts, acting upon the suggestions of an able report made by the Hon. C. T. HULBURD, chairman of a legislative committee sent to visit the Massachusetts schools, established an institution at Albany in 1844. That state now supports not less than eight normal schools, at an annual expense exceeding \$150,000. Other states have wheeled into line, until at the present time there are no less than one hundred in existence throughout the country. Of these more than half are state institutions, and the remainder have been established by local effort in cities and counties, and by private enterprise. Every northern and every western state, with two exceptions, has made pro-

vision for the support of teachers' seminaries, and several of the southern states have come nobly up to this important work. Since the last meeting of this Association, Iowa, the most refractory of the northwestern states on this question, has passed an act by a clear but not a constitutional majority establishing four schools for the training of elementary teachers; and Wisconsin has located and is preparing to open a fourth, under her magnificent system with its endowment of over \$1,000,000. The cities of Boston and New York are now erecting immense and costly edifices for their normal colleges, devoted exclusively to the preparation of female teachers, a sure pledge that woman's right to fill her heaven-appointed sphere as a teacher, and to a liberal preparation therefor, is being gloriously recognized. These facts, surely, are indicative of at least a moderate degree of success. They point unerringly to the conclusion that, if all the children of this country are ever to be educated, all the teachers must be adequately prepared for their great work.

That these professional schools have in all cases been successful as such, that they have worked fully up to their theory in any case, it would be unwise to claim. That they may have been, that they still are, too much given to academical or general teaching may be true. Although to that question there are two sides; for it is not at all difficult to show that *one* of the best modes of teaching *how to teach* a subject is actually to teach that subject according to the best models. Be that as it may, however, it is wise to admit that normal schools, being, like other human institutions, of the earth, earthy, are far from claiming perfection. Being in many communities still new agencies, with inexperience to guide them, they can not be expected to have reached their maximum of efficiency. But this fact is unquestionable, that, with all their imperfections, they have produced results so striking and satisfactory, as compared with other means for professional training, they are advancing in public favor beyond all former precedent. Time and patience and intelligent experience will remedy their defects, and they will yet become coëxtensive with the demands of our system for able, skillful, devoted teachers. Coming generations will long rise up to bless the names of JAMES G. CARTER, EDMUND DWIGHT, HORACE MANN, WM. E. CHANNING, EDWARD EVERETT, CALVIN E. STOWE, THOMAS H. GALLAUDET, WM. RUSSELL, GEO. B. EMERSON, HENRY BARNARD, CALVIN T. HULBURD, ALONZO POTTER, DAVID P. PAGE, FRANCIS DWIGHT, SAMUEL YOUNG, and the host of other noble men who, in every state, through evil report and good report, in season and out of season, have bravely stood up in defense of that policy whose universal acceptance is now so well assured. Henceforth, normal schools are no longer to be on the defensive. They are to be aggressive as well as progressive institutions. The struggle is to be no more a struggle for mere existence, but for extension and improvement; and it should be our chief care to see that the movement is guided wisely and well.

Before proceeding to the specific work of suggesting a system of measures adapted to the wants of the American people in this direction, the committee feel that they should be indulged in a few words respecting the *character and extent of those wants*.

No one who has given attention to the true history of our American society, and who has an adequate comprehension of the present aspect of affairs among us, can seriously question that the chief business of this nation ought to be,

and is to be, the right education of the whole people. The great and irrepressible conflict of the present and of all future time, here and every where, must be the conflict between intelligence and ignorance, virtue and vice, religion pure and undefiled and spiritual wickedness in *all* places. In the presence of this Titanic struggle, all others must "pale their ineffectual fires"; for upon its success must depend the final triumph of all that is good in man, and therefore all that is great on earth. In other words, if the human race is ever to be elevated to that standard of mental and moral excellence of which the poet dreams, and for which the patriot toils and the Christian prays, it must be through the sub-creative power of true teaching and right training applied during the golden opportunity of childhood and youth. The child is father to the man, mother to the woman, and parent to the citizen. Whatsoever, therefore, we would desire the man, the woman, the citizen to be, that they must be made to be by training up not only *the* child, but every child, in the way he should go. This, in a word, is precisely the great, overshadowing, inexorable want of the American people to-day, and always will be. Theoretically, we educate the whole people. Practically, there are more than 7,000,000 illiterates in the land, of whom more than half are adults and all are over ten years of age. The average age at which the average American child leaves school is not far from ten years. Illiteracy, in our official reports, means the inability to read and write. But the ability to read and write is not education; it is only one of the means to that end. It may be perverted to bad ends, as it often is. Thousands who are reported as being able to read can scarcely do so to any beneficent or useful purpose. It is safe to say, therefore, that there are other millions who are removed but a step above this mere minimum standard of intelligence, who have but a few scraps of that degree of learning which is "a dangerous thing," who can scarcely reason their way to a sound conclusion upon the most common-place subjects, and who are illy prepared for a safe discharge of the duties devolving upon "popular sovereigns." If intelligence has its grades, so has ignorance; and if we could determine just where in the latter the "dead line" lies, we should solve thereby a most important practical problem. Our common schools, particularly in some of the rural districts, send out thousands of ignorant, untrained boys and girls to be added to the ranks of American citizenship. It is manifest, therefore, that, howmuchsoever we may need more schools in the land, we need *better* schools quite as much. The *whole people* must not only be taught, and *well taught*, but TRAINED. Of this latter process, looking at our systems of instruction as a whole, it may be safely asserted that we have no more than made a beginning. There is by far too much loose, vague and slipshod work done in our schools. The morals, manners and habits of our children are neglected. The great thing in school education is not merely to teach the pupil how to use the printed page, but rather *how most efficiently and wisely to use himself, physically, mentally, socially, and morally*. It is not alone what we put into our pupils at school and elsewhere, but also what we draw out of them, what we habituate them to do, and how to do it. So, also, there are other influences besides those which beam from the printed page that go to make up the sum and substance of human character. Says the eloquent Dr. HUNTINGTON: "Into that wonderful human stock of whose nature I speak, there enter by influences as concealed, as mysterious, yet as conformable

to the divine regularity of the causes in God's economy, not only the blended contributions of all elements in earth and sea and air, but the *spiritual forces* of a *living Guide*. And so the educated man is meant to be not a subject of philosophic climates or geographic sections, but the incarnation of an illimitable humanity, with all the universe in his leaping pulses, with life eternal in the organs of his liberal and believing soul."

Says Monsieur GUIZOT: "A bad schoolmaster, like a bad parish priest, is a scourge to the commune." This, being interpreted, means that an ignorant, unskilled teacher may both misform and misinform the mind, injure the sensibilities, and dwarf the character of the child, and thus sap the very foundations of his usefulness and happiness. In the operations of a school, it is the *quality* no less than the *quantity* of the work done which tells upon the character of the pupils. The best curriculum ever devised by the wisdom of man, in the hands of an incompetent and slothful teacher, can accomplish little that is beneficial or desirable. On the other hand, an indifferent selection of studies wielded by a master hand, guided by a mind exuberant with varied attainments, a soul aglow with enthusiasm for its work, a heart full of reverence for God and love for His children, will prove a "pearl of great price" to all who are brought under its influence. The chief want of our schools is that a more vital, earnest and effective work be done in them. They *should* be made, and *can* be made, a more potent means for the development of a broad and symmetrical character. It is not enough that our children and youth be made to *know* the truth. They should be trained to love and act the truth. That school or system of schools which does not take care to supplement the knowing by the habitual practice of that which is true and good stops far short of its true goal. The world has a superabundance of those who know the right yet do it not. Has not the time arrived, then, when we should cease expending all our energies upon the mere teaching of a given routine of studies, and give some attention to the formation of habits and the development of character in the schools of a nation whose children are born to be sovereigns? It is true that the right teaching of the so-called purely intellectual studies has something to do with the development of character. But it is by no means all that can be done. It is also true that there are thousands of schools scattered all over this country where little or no intellectual excellence has yet been attained either in the teaching or the learning, but where, on the contrary, the minds of the young are stultified and debased by bad treatment. But intellectual acumen, a sensitiveness to moral impressions, good manners and right actions, so far from being incompatible with each other, may be the more easily developed by being cultivated contemporaneously. They are characteristics which are eminently fit to be associated together. Let no school, no teacher, ever put them asunder. Your committee believe that this high order of teaching and training demands superior intelligence, skill, and devotion. It demands that there should be higher and clearer conceptions of the nature, means and ends of education than are entertained by the great mass of those who teach in our country. These conceptions, this skill and devotion, are not acquired by accident. They must be the result, to a great extent, of special study and preparation. They must be developed under the stimulus of a powerful *esprit de corps*, such as can be generated alone in seminaries set apart for this special purpose.

Hence, as this higher order of teaching, as a national necessity, must become universal, so these training schools and other agencies for preparing teachers of every grade must also become universal.

The committee are further constrained to declare that another of our most urgent needs is *that of an intelligent, comprehensive and all-pervading educational sentiment among our people*. The want of this high-toned public opinion upon this subject is really the chief obstacle to our progress. How few, comparatively, of our common people have any conception of the nature of education beyond the acquisition of a few elementary branches. How rare to find among the masses a person who has grasped the idea that there are faculties to be developed, characters to be formed, and life destinies to be determined, by the influences and the processes of the school-room.

Nor are these narrow and superficial views of education confined to the masses alone. If we seek for profounder conceptions upon the subject among the more intelligent classes, how frequently are we disappointed. It would at first sight seem a solecism to affirm that there are multitudes of those who pass for educated persons who yet entertain the most vague and inadequate notions of education itself in that broader sense in which it is now regarded by its promoters. Yet this is undeniably the fact. Their theory of education is the *learning* theory purely. It is a matter of the intellect alone. It is not with them a vital, organic process, laying hold of body, mind and soul, and seeking, through the application of God-ordained laws, to work out the great problem of human happiness through the development and culture of each individual of the race. It is a something to be accepted or rejected according to the choice of the person to be affected by it. The paramount claims of necessity and duty form no part of their creed.

But one of the most lamentable facts connected with the subject we are considering is the absence of right views of education and of an earnest and abiding conviction of its supreme importance to the stability and welfare of the country by many of our public men and our statesmen. In this respect there is a marked contrast between the statesmen of Europe and of our own country in no degree creditable to the latter. No longer ago than one year, this body of educators was gravely informed, by one who occupies a peculiarly prominent position before the nation at the present time, that the tendency of education among us was not to prevent crime, but that our "prime rascals were our educated rascals." We cite this incident here merely as an illustration of the distorted views held by many of our prominent men concerning the real nature of education. It probably is true that our prime rascals are our *half-educated* rascals—that is to say, rascals with less than one side of themselves educated. The fact that a man is a rascal is *prima-facie* evidence that he has never been fully educated. "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it." This maxim is as true to-day as when it was uttered by the wise man of old, and this training is a necessary part of every complete education. "I call *that* a complete and generous education," says MILTON, "which fits a man to perform magnanimously, skillfully and justly all the offices, both public and private, of peace and of war." WYSE, in his excellent work on Education Reform, declares that "education is the perfection of man's being through the discharge of duty." The expression



"educated rascals" is, therefore, a contradiction of terms, and he who uses it and believes in it is scarcely fitted to legislate wisely upon a subject so important.

The wide-spread prevalence of crude and discordant ideas is productive of the most serious embarrassments in the practical administration of our system of education, and it proves that much yet remains to be done in the direction of inculcating sound views upon the subject, before our measures for rightly educating all the children in the country can work with their full force and effect. Among the results of this state of things is that it embarrasses wholesome and needed legislation, and demoralizes the workings of the whole system, down to the supervision of the schools, the employment of competent teachers, and the accumulation of the manifold material aids requisite to sound teaching and thorough training. It is a familiar fact that in most communities right legislation for school purposes is one of the most difficult of all things to accomplish, and it is on account of the universality of these crude and discordant views among our sovereign law-makers. In the legislature of a certain state which shall be nameless, for the past three years, such statesmanlike propositions as these have been in order: To abolish the normal school and convert it into an asylum for the insane; to change it to an institute for deaf mutes; to transform it into a home for orphans; and last, but not least, to donate it to the unfortunate city in which it was located. One of the bills for this purpose, drawn up by a model legislator, and consisting of but eight lines, was embellished with eight misspelled words. As frivolous as these propositions may appear, whole days were consumed in their discussion, at an expense to the state of several thousand dollars, while the school in question, the heart and brain of the whole school system, was suffering for lack of pecuniary support!

But it is not necessary to enlarge further upon these topics. Time would utterly fail us in the attempt to depict the evil consequences growing directly out of the absence of such a sentiment as we have referred to. To make such an attempt would be to portray nearly every defect in the system; for, did the people of this country comprehend as they should do the nature and the necessities of that culture which is the inalienable right of every citizen, this noble cause would want for nothing. Illiteracy would no longer flaunt its filthy rags in the face of the great nation which it disgraces, and the day would soon dawn when every child in the land would stand forth redeemed, regenerated and disenthralled by the genius of universal education.

The great question is, How shall such a sentiment be farther developed, fostered and strengthened in the midst of this people? We answer: Firstly, by the increase of all the agencies for the professional training of the nation's teachers; and secondly, by making education itself, education as a science, a subject of study in all our higher institutions of learning. In a country where, as a necessity of whose existence, all must be educated, all must to a large extent be educators. Hence, all must have an intelligent apprehension of the nature, ends and means of that by which its life is sustained and its true happiness is secured. The history and literature of education should be familiar to its scholars, statesmen, public men, editors, teachers, and its leaders of opinion every where. It is manifest, also, that any system of agencies for effecting the objects desired must be in harmony with institutions which

already exist and which have commended themselves to the approbation and confidence of the people. They must be as far-reaching as are the national needs, and they must receive the united support of all who love their country, and who would see her realize the sublime mission which Providence seems to have assigned to her as a leader in the grand march toward a higher civilization.

For the foregoing reasons, your committee recommend, as the result of their examination of this subject:

1. That in each university throughout the country there be established a school or faculty of education, in which the nature, ends, means, history and literature of that subject shall be thoroughly taught, and in which the principles and methods applicable to higher education should receive their appropriate share of attention.

2. That in every college and high school there be a professorship of education and didactics, under the operation of which the true theory of education, its relations to the individual and to society, together with its history in our own country, including its rise, progress, present condition and legislation, shall be taught to every student.

3. That in every state there should be established, according to its population and resources, one or more normal schools or colleges of a high order, for the special training of teachers for high schools, for the elementary normal schools hereinafter named, and for the preparation of superintendents of schools for counties and cities.

4. That these higher normal schools should be supplemented in each county, where practicable, by an elementary normal school supported by the county, with state aid if such can be secured, for the training of those teachers who are to be employed in the primary and intermediate grades of instruction and in the mixed schools of the rural districts.

5. That, in addition to the foregoing, there should be held in every county, when its population is sufficient to warrant it, at least one normal institute in each year, the session to continue from two to six weeks, in order to afford the means for professional instruction to all who are unable to avail themselves of the more permanent advantages of the training schools. Attendance upon these institutes by those who have not enjoyed the benefits of the normal schools should be so far compulsory as to be made a condition of the employment of all teachers who can not show, upon a careful examination, an equivalent of the professional knowledge imparted in them. The institutes should be under the joint tuition of the county superintendents and the instructors of the training schools.

A little reflection upon this plan will show that in suggesting it we have broached nothing that is new. We have brought together the elements of a system which seems to be shaping itself to meet the necessities of the situation. Each of the agencies named exists here and there, and many of them are acting with vigor and efficiency. What we need is that they should come into general use, that they should all act with energy and effect, and that they should be supported with a liberality proportionate to the wants of the nation.

We believe that these elements of a great system of special instruction in the history, theory and practice of education foreshadow that which is to be. Time and experience may modify it, or they may call into existence some additional link in this chain of causes. We believe, however, that we have here the several instrumentalities that the wants of the country demand, if they can but be efficiently operated.

In states where none of them exist, it would undoubtedly be advisable to begin with the higher normal school and the normal institutes. The normal school will thus supply the well-trained teachers for the institutes and the elementary training schools, while the institutes will help in a measure to prepare those who must for the time being be relied upon to teach the mass of schools. By the general establishment of permanent training schools, however, teaching itself will become a more permanent occupation with thousands who now make it a mere stepping-stone, and thus one of the greatest evils in our system will at least be greatly mitigated.

A multitude of practical suggestions, as well as answers to objections which may be made to the details of this scheme, occur to your committee, but time will not permit even of their enumeration. If any apology is needed for the length of this report, the committee trust that it may be found in the transcendent importance of the subject under consideration.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. F. PHELPS, Chairman.

Previous to the discussion, the Jubilee Singers, from Nashville University, were introduced, who gave a few of their characteristic pieces.

#### DISCUSSION.

*D. B. Hagar, Esq.*, Principal of the Salem Normal School, Massachusetts, said: Mr. President, I approach the subject for discussion with real diffidence, because I deem it one that involves questions of great importance and great difficulty. I feel more inclined to ask questions than to make propositions. That teachers need to be trained for their work is one that needs no discussion; although I desire to say that not all the best teachers in the country have been prepared in normal schools. Assuming that, on the whole, special training is desirable, the question arises, How shall we obtain the largest number of the best-trained men and women? Shall we have a system of normal schools, shall we have a system of special training schools, or what course shall we take? Thus far, we have established normal schools in many of the states, and in many cities and large towns there have been established training schools.

What are our normal schools doing? what are they capable of doing? Are they doing such a work that the present system should be sustained, or should it give way to something else? I agree to the proposition in the paper read, that there should be some school in which teachers of the highest class may be trained for their work. Many college presidents will tell you that those engaged in instruction in the colleges would be improved by a special training.

We have different grades, or simply one grade, perhaps, involving different departments. We have in Massachusetts normal schools of both the lower

and the higher grade. We have a course occupying two years; and also an advanced course, to prepare teachers for teaching in the high schools or academies, occupying two years more. We have, therefore, arrangements for preparing teachers for all the schools.

But this is to be borne in mind, that the influence of the normal schools is not limited to the number of pupils who graduate from them. Thus: for example, we prepare persons to teach in high schools. They teach their pupils by what are considered good methods, so that in many high schools we have persons receiving instruction from those who have been taught in a normal school, and who put in practice the methods they have learned; and the pupils are therefore taught by normal methods. These pupils from the high schools go out and become teachers of common schools, and thus are carried into the common schools methods which are used in the normal schools, but by those who have obtained them at second hand.

Again, it is one design of the normal school to prepare teachers who can conduct a graded school. Now, although the subordinate teachers in that school may not have had any special training as teachers, by being under one who has been so trained, they derive, to a large extent, from their principal those advantages which they might have derived had they been themselves members of a normal school. So that our schools, as they now stand, educate in normal ideas many who do not come directly within the walls of a normal-school building.

Again, every good teacher becomes a light to others. We know that in many instances a good teacher going into a town has been the means of revolutionizing the schools of the town. So that the statement that our normal schools, as now organized, are not doing a great work seems to me not to rest on a sound foundation. But our normal schools may be made more useful than they now are; that is, if the people would employ competent superintendents of schools. Suppose a young man trained in a normal school goes out to work; let such a young man, a graduate of a normal school and experienced as a teacher, be the superintendent of the schools of a town; or, if the towns are small, let several towns employ him as a superintendent. Thus, by our present organization, we could accomplish a great deal more work than is now credited to the normal schools.

Then comes in another instrumentality, the special training schools established in large towns, the great purpose of which is to train the graduates of the high schools to teach in the common schools. This supplemental work of the normal school is the means of preparing many teachers for employing the methods of the normal schools.

Then there are teachers' institutes; though I do not believe these can take the place of normal schools. They may, however, if proper arrangements are made to have the teachers attend them, do much, especially if continued for some time, and if the best methods of teaching are inculcated. Thus most of the teachers in the state may be reached.

I favor, then, a system like this: first, a school of the highest order, in which the highest talent may be employed to train teachers of the highest class for our colleges and high schools; secondly, normal schools as they now exist substantially in many of our states, designed to prepare teachers for high schools,

grammar schools, and common schools; thirdly, institutes, supported by the state, which shall be free to all, and especially designed for those who have no time or means to attend a regular normal school.

The question may arise whether it may not be possible to establish a grade lower than our present grade. I do not wish to offer an opinion very positively on that subject; but my impressions are quite against it. I see very great defects even in those that we have, and apprehend that if we have a lower grade—and these are not too high, as it seems to me—the public will hardly recognize the difference between the graduates of such a school and those who have no normal training whatever. It is doubtless true that the mass of teachers teach for the sake of the compensation, and if they could secure positions which would give the compensation by a shorter course of instruction, they would be likely to take the shorter course. I think, therefore, the establishment of a lower grade of normal schools would tend to diminish greatly attendance upon those of a higher grade. The higher you can make your standard, the better.

*The President.* We have heard from the northwest and the east; and I would like to hear from the south. I would call on Mr. J. HODGSON, President of the University of Alabama.

*Mr. Hodgson.* Five minutes is too short a time in which to make an address, and I will simply state what has been done in Alabama in reference to normal-school training. The Board of Education took up this subject, and established several normal schools throughout the state. They were not successful, however; and when I had the honor to be selected as President of the University of Alabama, this whole subject was referred to me by the Superintendent of Public Instruction; and, after a great deal of mature deliberation, I came to the conclusion that all we could do would be to establish a normal department in connection with the university. For this purpose the state made an appropriation, and twenty applications were received for connection with this department of normal training. We required for admission to this department that the candidate should be at least sixteen years of age, that he should pass an examination in all the elementary branches of an English education. A three years' course was provided, and the President of the University was required to deliver lectures on the best methods of teaching. The plan of teaching was then stated, beginning with spelling, and so on. Great interest was excited, not only among the young men, but in the students of the university. The attendance became large, and the attention very good indeed. This plan will be conducted in the future; and I am here to-day to receive information from those who have spent years in training teachers, that I may go home and introduce the best plans. As to the importance of training teachers I have no doubt at all.

There are no young ladies in the college, and consequently none receive the benefit of this training. We have never had in the State of Alabama any special training schools until since the war; we have begun in the university and expect to work downward.

*Hon. John Eaton, Jr.,* United States Commissioner of Education, was introduced as the next lecturer, who presented

## EDUCATIONAL LESSONS OF STATISTICS.

The term "statistics" is apt to convey to our minds only the idea of a confused mass of facts represented by figures. And shall I try to win your favor and secure a fair attention to these educational lessons of statistics in spite of the proverbial dryness of figures, by reminding you that LOWELL tells us "The real does not clip the poet's wings": that statistics are only the abbreviated formal records of realities—facts brought into shape for philosophical inquiry, and possibly constituting the Mount Helicon in the midst of whose beautiful groves the tread of some Pegasus shall open the fountain of the Muses? Indeed, poets have used figures with great effect. How forcibly is the contrast between the juvenile and the gray-haired criminal put by the figures in the lines

"There are ninety good years of fair and foul weather  
Between them, and both go a-stealing together."

Who can forget the effect of figures in that stanza of "The Ancient Mariner,"

"Four times fifty living men,  
(And I heard not a sigh nor groan),  
With heavy thump, a lifeless lump,  
They dropped down, one by one."

Fiction seeks to be most effective by conforming to the generalization of facts. The most truthful portrait has a touch of the ideal. The countenance of the man for the moment, as that of LINCOLN, may not reveal his large, his many-sided, his true character; other moments or other moods of expression must be brought in and blended; but the most effective sculptor may safely submit his works of art to the measurement of the square and compass, for they never violate proportion.

Nor need this study of statistics, by dealing with the material, disturb faith and religious sentiment—faith that is not superstitious is in accord with reason; religious sentiment that is not fanatical is adapted to all that is human and real. Nay, this faith and sentiment add interest to their experience by seizing facts, by grasping realities, and individualizing or generalizing them. Moreover, even SHAKESPEARE accepted the doctrine, and declared "miracles are ceased; and therefore we must needs admit the means how things are perfected."

The man of faith no longer expects a miracle to enforce his duty; he reposes in what has been revealed and what reason may observe, record, discover, and infer. He is assured that divinity reveals itself not merely in miraculous revelation, not merely in the forces of physical nature; but in the intellectual and social experiences of man's free agency, and, guided in his interpretations by what has been revealed, observes, records and accumulates results from human experiences, and finds them the support and confirmation of his faith.

If, then, it is my task in a half-hour to work in the field of the realist, and I do not offend the idealist—if I deal with dull prose, and poetry is not offended—if I speak of this life, and do not disturb him who has the promise of that which is to come, whom need I offend or turn away from these educational lessons of statistics? Herein, indeed, is the delight of the educator. In his work

the difficulties of all creeds become solvent; all their differences harmonize. The subtle power of the spiritual forces that he directs, no language can describe, no figures fully represent.

Indeed, the essence of life itself is too impoñderable, too immaterial and subtle, for any measurement; but he who would divest life of its arithmetic, and attempt to go along without the knowledge and use of numbers, will speedily find himself in trouble with his boot-black, his baker, or, as it may chance, the officer of the law.

The soul, though beyond our touch and sight, is nevertheless known by its manifestations through the body; and so of a people, or a commonwealth, or nation. Dr. FICKER quotes NAPOLEON I. as saying: "Statistics mean the keeping of an exact account of a nation's affairs, and without such an account there is no safety." And GOETHE says: "I do not know whether figures govern the world, but this I do know, they show *how* it is governed."

I. We note some educational lessons connected with the growth of statistics. The gathering of statistics in any branch of human industry comes long after the commencement of its activity. The beginners are too busy at their work to stop to take account of stock at every step,—they are too intent upon the results desired to have thought for counting all the steps of their weary way. It is only when the historical era approaches, when an end has been attained, an experiment tried, that an attempt is made to recall its beginnings and trace the steps of progress. Of course, they must be in a measure incomplete and unsatisfactory; and those laborers in similar fields are often filled with regret that their predecessors have left no accurate records of their efforts which might serve as charts to direct and warn. It too often happens that, when the thought of keeping records occurs, the workers in a given field adopt methods so diverse and incomplete that they form but the records of so many single experiences, incapable of being aggregated or contrasted with each other, and so their chief value is lost; especially is this true of educational statistics in this country.

Educational statistics had but slight development under the colonial governments; but our forefathers had a keen appreciation of the meaning and bearing of figures. Only such facts were collected in regard to the young during that period in the sparse and new settlements as the best men were able to secure as the means of enforcing education. PITMAN and SEYBERT, two authors who produced valuable works on statistics of the colonies, give no figures in regard to education. Censuses, if taken at all, were for the purpose of ascertaining the capacity of the town or the colony for defense for war purposes.

The Census of Massachusetts taken in 1765 may be selected as characteristic and representative of the period. Its schedule included the number of dwelling-houses, and the number of both sexes of whites, negroes and Indians respectively, and distinguished, in the case of white persons, those of each sex respectively under and above the age of sixteen years. But in the census of New Hampshire of 1775 no division of the females was made, not even in reference to age. But the observation and generalization of facts will be found historically, perhaps we may say uniformly, behind any specially new impulse given to education.

LUTHER, the robust German reformer, deeply affected by the "thus saith the Lord," found his efforts and zeal quickened and directed by his own experience and the facts within his observation in regard to education. Out of these deep convictions went his positive declaration to the councilmen of the towns of Germany in 1524, calling upon them to establish and sustain Christian schools. "Beloved rulers," he wrote, "if we find it necessary to expend such large sums as we do upon artillery, roads, bridges, dykes, and a thousand other things of the sort, in order that a city may be assured of continued order, peace and tranquillity, ought we not to expend on the poor suffering youth therein at least enough to provide them with a schoolmaster or two?" Again, "Now a city's increase consists not alone in heaping up great treasures, in building solid walls or stately houses, or in multiplying artillery or munitions of war; nay, where there is great store of this and yet fools with it, it is all the worse, and all the greater loss for the city."

From these educational lessons, drawn by LUTHER and his coadjutors from their experiences and the facts around them, what a flood of influence has come down the course of human history!

FREDERICK WILLIAM the First, adding his own observations and those of his counselors, adopted educational measures which were confirmed by his son, FREDERICK the Great, who, by his knowledge of his subjects and his belief in the power of culture, had become deeply impressed with their importance, and applied all the force of his character to compel the education of his people, though his poor country was bleeding with his prolonged and almost constant wars.

His edict of March 1st, 1764, required school visitors to furnish answers to the schedule of inquiries given them. In 1771 followed the "school catalogue," or schedule for annual reports from schools.

Thus began, we may say, the formal school statistics of Prussia which have taught the world the power of universal education.

So, too, KNOX, the iron-sided reformer, saw that all the good and evil of society had their beginnings in youth, and could be increased or diminished by the training of the young; and we have from him and his associates the system of parish schools, which has ever since made Scotland an illustration of the good effects of the careful public education of the young.

The earliest settlers in New England had been close observers of every step in the progress of light among the people. All the facts before them we know not. They had lived in England; some of them had traveled on the Continent; some had tarried at Delft Haven, Holland; a few were among the most learned men of the times and brought with them the most valuable authors,—among them, LUTHER. And out of their sense of duty to the young, and what they observed was human tendency, and what they knew of the aid human nature needed for its preservation and elevation, they were led to make early provision for education, establishing a college and founding the common-school system.

Mr. WEBSTER fitly declared that "among the planets in the sky of New England—the burning lights which throw intelligence and happiness on her people,—the first and most brilliant is her system of common schools."

Harvard College was founded in 1638, and in the act of 1642 of the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts it was ordered that the selectmen en-



force the instruction of children sufficiently to enable every child to read and acquire a "knowledge of the capital laws," upon penalty of twenty shillings.

In the act passed five years later, in 1647, "it is ordered that every town of fifty householders shall have a school in which all children shall be taught to read and write; and every town of a hundred families was required to set up a grammar school in which youth may be fitted for the university"; and a penalty of five pounds was affixed, which was afterward raised to ten pounds. How they carried out this law is apparent from items in the history of the several towns. And we should not hasten our observations here too rapidly to note the extent of the immediate effect of these enactments,—*first*, that not only what is now the State of Massachusetts, but Maine and New Hampshire were under that General Court; and that Connecticut took most similar action; and Vermont, settled under the auspices of the older colonies, partook of their character; while Rhode Island, on account of the antagonisms connected with its settlement, though following not far off, was least affected.

*Second.* We should note that these enactments, by shaping the school system so completely in New England, where it was generally successful, have been set down in history as giving color and shape to the education of these United States.

Under these enactments, Dover, N. H., at a town meeting held the 5th of the 2d month, 1658, voted that twenty pounds be raised annually for the maintenance of a schoolmaster to teach the children to read and write and cast accounts; the children in town were to be taught free, and the master to have the tuition fee paid by strangers.

The town of Woburn, Massachusetts, in 1685-'86, employed and paid a Grammar schoolmaster two years, to avoid the above penalty, though no pupils attended on his instruction.

We find that an order was sent to the town of Concord, Mass., to inquire in regard to the instruction of the young, and this order was returned indorsed: "I have made diligent inquiry according to this warrant, and find no defects to return.

SIMON DAVIS.

March 31st, 1680."

The grand juries of the period were charged to inquire into the enforcement of this law.

Dunstable, Mass., in 1730, having the "fifty householders," and having neglected to provide a *teacher* according to law, had been indicted by the grand jury; and Nov. 3d it was voted "that the selectmen provide a writing-school *directly*."

Among the notable inquiries in regard to educational facts in the colonial period, all will recall those sent from England in 1670;—those addressed to the governors in regard to the condition of instruction in the colonies were answered by Connecticut that "one-fourth of the annual revenue of the colony" was "laid out in maintaining free schools"; while Sir WM. BERKELEY, Governor of Virginia, replied: "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have these hundred years."

Again in 1724, the Bishop of London addressed the following queries to the clergy of the twenty-seven parishes into which Maryland was divided: "Have you and your parishes any public schools for the instruction of youth? If you have, is it endowed, and who is the master?" Of the twenty-seven replies re-

ceived from the principal parishes, only one rector reports—"I have in my parish one public school endowed with twenty pounds current money, which is about fifteen pounds sterling a year, for which the master is obliged to teach ten charity scholars." All the other parishes reported "no public school."

Students of statistics in our country are accustomed to look to three sources: first, to the censuses taken by the states and their other reports; second, the U.S. decennial census; third, to voluntary or private efforts in the collection and the use of statistics. We can not tell when teachers first used a register on their desks, or what items they first included, nor when they began to report in figures the work done in their schools to a supervisory authority. We observe in the New-England system that, as the necessities of education grew in importance and were more fully recognized, a separate class of officers were selected in the town to take charge of schools and relieve the selectmen, who were at first intrusted with the educational responsibilities, as well as all others in the management of town affairs, as voted at the town meetings.

In the State of New York, we learn from the reports of Mr. HAWLEY that, in 1815, the districts reported to the state: (1) The number of children taught; (2) the number of children between five and sixteen years resident in the district; (3) the sum annually paid; (4) the amount of money paid by individuals on rate-bills.

In 1821 Virginia required each county to report: (1) The number of schools therein; (2) the number of scholars educated in such schools; (3) the price of tuition; (4) the amount expended, and (5) the unexpended balance for the year.

The State of Maine, on Feb. 25th, 1825, provided for the following returns from each county to the Secretary of State: (1) The number of school districts; (2) the number of children between four and twenty-one years of age; (3) the number who annually attend school; (4) amount raised and expended for school purposes; (5) the proportion of this amount which was raised from funds.

In Massachusetts, the law of 1826 required the school committee of each town to report the following items concerning schools in said town:

No. of persons over 14 years unable to read or write.

No. persons prevented by expense of school-books.

No. children from 7 to 16 not attending school.

Expense of school-books for each pupil in town schools.

Estimated amount of private tuition fees.

Estimated No. of pupils in private schools.

No. of academies and private schools.

Return of the School Committee of No. of pupils in town schools:

Females—From 14 and upwards.

" 7 to 14.

Under 7.

Males—From 14 and upwards.

" 7 to 14.

Under 7.

Time of keeping school in the year.

No. public school districts.

Amount paid for public instruction.

The comprehensiveness of this schedule is well worthy the study of educators to-day.

Observe that it inquires what both public and private schools are doing for the education of the young, also how many had passed beyond the school period who could neither read nor write.

Connecticut early made an enumeration of the children of the state on which to base the distribution of the school fund.

As early as 1820-'25 we begin to see here and there over the country the indications of that increased attention to education, and to the statistics of education, the benefit of whose lessons we now enjoy.

Good men, patriotic citizens, philanthropists, were seeking the facts, and were alarmed at what they found.

Mr. CARTER, in Massachusetts, wrote his celebrated letters to Mr. PRESCOTT. Mr. W. R. JOHNSTON then began his efforts in Pennsylvania. A committee of gentlemen from Kentucky visiting other states, particularly those in New England, made a report of what they saw that was widely quoted and effective for education.

Mr. TEACKLE was active in Maryland. Mr. EMERSON, Miss GRANT, MARY LYON and Mrs. WILLARD were feeling the force of those facts and forming those opinions out of which has sprung the greatest progress in the education of women. Indeed, noting that the early laws only provided for the employment of a schoolmaster, it would be curious to trace the lessons of statistics, showing the steps by which women appeared in the educational record as teachers. The first that I have noticed is that of Woburn, Mass., in 1673, in which the town acknowledged an indebtedness to ALLEN CONNAR's wife, and JOSEPH WRIGHT's wife, for schooling. It appears they had employed JOHNSON TOMSON to teach the bigger children, and ALLEN CONNAR's wife to teach the lesser children.

Newbury, settled in 1635, in 1790-'1 opened "three or four women's schools, to learn them between the ages of five and nine, good manners, proper decency of behavior, teach their letters, how to put them together with syllables, learn them to spell, and finally to read with clearness and precision any chapter in the Bible. In 1792, in Newburyport, from nine years, girls were allowed by vote of the town to attend the master's school during the summer months when the boys in the school had diminished." This was restricted, however, to one hour a day, after the dismissal of the boys; and to those whose parents were taxed for over three hundred pounds.

In Medford the girls were allowed to attend the master's school from six to eight in the morning, and two hours in the night from four to six.

In 1784 girls were admitted to writing schools in the City of Boston, while the boys were out at the noon intermission. The High School for Girls was opened in the city in 1825, and became so popular, the applications so numerous, the demand for larger and better accommodations so great, that, under the leadership of Mayor JOSIAH QUINCY, the school was abolished and pronounced a failure, or it was recorded, "it was inexpedient to continue it." We can not recount the establishment of normal schools, the opening of colleges and professional schools to women, or the other steps in the transition

which is marked by the statement that in Massachusetts in 1869 there were 8,022 teachers, of whom 6,937 were women.

In 1830 a notable private effort was made in the American Almanac to give a summary of educational statistics.

In connection with each state the attempt was made to indicate something of the number of common schools, the attendance, and the expenses, number of academies, their chief source of secondary instruction, also of the libraries and newspapers. Several important items were given in regard to 43 colleges in the country; so also of the 20 theological seminaries. Statistics of intelligence and ignorance gave new zeal to educators, and the revival of interest led to increased attention to the revision and collation of facts.

These statistics, as imperfect as they were, and largely by these very imperfections, showed clearly that education could neither be left solely with the child, the family, or the church,—that the state had something more to do than merely to make laws.

In Massachusetts, a State Board was created, and Hon. HORACE MANN was made secretary.

In Connecticut, the Hon. HENRY BARNARD became secretary.

Into what a chaos these officers were thrust! Neither of them at first was furnished an office. Mr. MANN, till he resigned, had his office in his private house, and never was half paid; fortunately for history, the state waked up after his death and erected a statue in his honor. Would that space would allow me to catalogue at least the noble names that with them sought the facts and statistics in regard to education in that day and poured them into the presses, and in eloquent strains declared them in the church and school-house, until the people felt and acted upon them. Some here have listened to Mr. MANN's strong, well-poised and sharply-barbed sentences, as he sent them with all his fervor among his hearers, telling of the number of miserable school-houses, of incompetent teachers and school officers, of neglected or ignorant children in the commonwealth; as he reasoned with them in support of the great principles of universal and well-directed education.

With Mr. MANN, Mr. BARNARD, and others who were put in charge of education in the states, statistics began to assume character.

They prepared blank forms and thus secured reports.

Dr. BARNARD printed his first register in Connecticut at his own expense, and secured returns only as the zeal of the teachers responded to his own.

The growth of the remaining chief source of statistics I have not described—the Census of the United States.

Other nations had taken account of themselves more for the purpose of man's destruction in war; the United States censuses have been directed to a very different object—they have been taken for the purpose of carrying into effect that clause of the Constitution providing for the apportionment of representatives among the people; and have come to include such other objects promotive of the public welfare as the general sentiment demanded, and for which it could secure the action of Congress and of the executive officers.

The schedule for the first census of the United States, in 1790, embraced five columns of items relating to the sex, color and age of the inhabitants, showing separately the slaves. No facts relating to intelligence or education were included until 1840. Before this census was taken, Dr. HENRY BARNARD, in

1839, when he came to look into the material which should be the basis for writing and speaking on the subject of education, went to Washington and had an interview with the Secretary of State (Mr. FORSYTH), and urged the insertion of specific items in regard to education and illiteracy in the schedule of the next census. How powerfully the educational lessons derived from the facts contained in this census affected the country can never be told by man. Dr. BARNARD delivered in 17 states an address in which he drew out and enforced these lessons. In 1850 still more valuable results were sought; the law that was passed for that census, notwithstanding persistent efforts in Congress to amend and improve it, remains unchanged, and both the census of 1860 and the last census of 1870 were taken in accordance with its provisions.

Second. We come to some of the present educational lessons of statistics, and, having noted some of the educational lessons suggested by the growth of statistics of the census, we refer here first to some of the lessons of the census of 1870. Although the law remains the same, thanks to the good sense and courage of Gen. FRANCIS A. WALKER, Superintendent, we have modifications of the schedules, giving us vastly more valuable results for 1870 than in any preceding census.

Schools were divided into the following general and special classes:

I. Public.—1. Normal. 2. High. 3. Grammar. 4. Graded and ungraded, common.

II. Classical, Professional, and Technical.—1. Classical.—(a) Colleges. (b) Academies. 2. Professional.—(a) Medicine. (b) Theology. (c) Law. 3. Technical.—Agricultural, Commercial, Dentistry, and for the Deaf, Dumb and Blind.

III. Other.—1. Day and boarding. 2. Parochial and charity.

For each single special class the following schedule was used:

No. of Schools.	TEACHERS.		PUPILS.		INCOME DURING THE YEAR.		
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	From endowments.	From taxation and public funds.	From all other sources.

General educational statistics were also obtained in this census according to the following schedule:

ATTENDED SCHOOL DURING THE YEAR.

Total.	Native.	Foreign.	WHITE.		COLORED.		CHINESE.		INDIANS.	
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.

Facts in regard to illiteracy were collected according to the following schedule:

Can not read. 1870.	1870. PERSONS 10 YEARS AND OVER WHO CAN NOT WRITE.									
	Total.	Native.	Foreign.	WHITE.						COLORED.
				10 to 15.		15 to 20.		21 and over.		Same divisions as under White.
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	

1st. We notice some facts in regard to the condition of the several states of the Union as respects attention to the education of the young.

According to the census, there were in 1870 in the United States — excluding the territories — 6,550,808\* youth under instruction (in 124,456† schools of all classes), of whom 6,318,890 are reported as natives, and 231,918 are reported as foreign; \*3,392,539 are reported as males, \*3,158,269 are reported as females; \*6,374,311 are reported as whites, \*175,181 are reported as colored; taught by †219,432 teachers, of whom †92,640 were males, †126,792 were females. For the education of these youth there were expended †\$94,190,166, or per capita, \$14.37.

In the schools designated as public there were under instruction 6,203,423, of whom 3,107,179 were males and 3,096,244 were females; taught by 182,537 teachers, of whom 73,921 were males and 108,616 were females; at a total cost of \$63,410,310, or a cost per pupil of \$10.22.†

In 13,595 schools designated as "other," that is, private, day, boarding, etc., there were under instruction 696,630 pupils, of whom 338,839 were males and 357,791 were females; taught by 24,320 teachers, of whom 11,070 were males and 13,250 were females. Total expenditure, \$13,346,297, or cost per capita of \$19.15.† That is, the average per capita cost of education in the United States is \$8.93 more in private than it is in the public schools.

In 2518 institutions reported as classical, professional and technical, including colleges, there were under instruction 252,340 students, of whom 146,822 were males and 105,518 were females; taught by 12,575 teachers, of whom 7,649 were males and 4,926 were females; at a total expenditure of \$17,423,559, or a cost per student of \$69.04.†

1st. The income or expenditure for education per capita of the total population in the different states is well worthy of comparison.

In Alabama it was 64 cts.; in Arkansas, \$1.14; in California, \$2.90; in Connecticut, \$3.99; in Delaware, \$1.02; in Massachusetts, \$2.20; in Tennessee, 54 cents. In Texas no expenditure was reported; schools were not started there until 1870, and the attendance within the year was 83,000.

\*From Table IX, Vol. 1, 9th Census.

†From Table XI, Vol. 1, 9th Census.

The states paying for public schools less than \$1.00 per capita of total population are Virginia, Georgia, North Carolina, Florida, South Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana. Those paying more than \$1.00 and less than \$2.00, are Delaware, Arkansas, Indiana, New Hampshire, Maine, West Virginia, Maryland, Oregon, Vermont, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Missouri, Kansas, Michigan, Nevada.

The states paying more than \$2.00 and less than \$3.00, are Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania, Mississippi, Massachusetts, Iowa, California. Those paying more than \$3.00 are Illinois, Ohio, Connecticut,—the latter paying \$3.99.

It is still further instructive to compare this per capita with the per capita of the average school attendance. While in Nevada it is \$1.91 per capita of the whole population, it is \$43.78 per capita of the average attendance. In California it is \$2.90 per capita of population, while it is \$21.55 per capita of average school attendance.

According to the census report, New York expends for education \$8,912,024; Ohio, \$8,528,145; Illinois, \$7,812,265; Pennsylvania, \$7,292,946.

2d. Some facts in regard to the intelligence of those ten years old and over, in the several states.

Every student of school statistics is familiar with the fact that a very large proportion of the pupils never advance beyond the elements of learning, which are often reached at the age of ten. The census gives us those ten years and over who can not write, amounting in all the states to 5,543,470. Measured by this scale, Nevada stands at the head of the states, followed by Maine, New Hampshire, Oregon, Nebraska, Michigan, California, Wisconsin, while at the foot stands South Carolina, and following in order Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Texas.

3d. The relation of the adult illiteracy to the civil affairs of the several states and of the United States.

For purposes of generalization, we may say that all male citizens are now voters, and may hold office, give testimony in the courts, and sit on juries. According to the census, there are in the several states 1,554,931 totally illiterate male adults. If we follow Mr. MANN'S rule of adding  $\frac{1}{3}$  to those who report themselves illiterate, we have 2,073,241 practically illiterate.

The whole number of male adults in all the states can not yet be precisely given, but enough is known of the proportion borne by the illiterates to the whole number of voters to be profoundly suggestive to those who believe that the intelligence and virtue of the people constitute the only security for the permanency of its institutions and the prosperity of the nation.

It will be recollected that 300,000 is a large majority in any election of President. The determination of the election thus far is practically in the control of less than three hundred thousand votes. But this is less than one-sixth of the voters in the country who are illiterate. How often we are told brain-power or intelligence directs the multitude. A mass of ignorance is always a temptation to the designing and evil. They appeal to the passions and prejudices of the ignorant. The more intelligent and virtuous a people, the more they judge for themselves and the less are they subject to leadership.

Had we the total voting male population, as we shall have when the census is complete, it would enable us to inquire how large a share of the House of

Representatives in Congress would be subject to election by a non-reading constituency; what share of the state officers would be subject to its control.

But the computations of the census already enable us to look at the facts in some of the states, and we will do it by obtaining the per cent. of illiterate voting males to the whole number of voters in these states as the measure we will use. In Alabama this is 53 per cent. Therefore, they have the power, by voting together, to elect more than half of the legislature of the state, and over half of the members of Congress, and to constitute over one-half of any jury in the state, if in each case of jury, or member of legislature, or member of Congress, the percentage for the entire state be held good.

And the same is true in Mississippi, where 51 per cent. of the voters are illiterate, and in Georgia and Florida. In Kentucky 28 per cent. are illiterate; in Maryland, 22; and in Delaware, 24. In these states the illiterates have one-fifth and more of the voting power, jury power, and witness power. Should these ignorant voters, in these cases, determine to elect only persons as ignorant as themselves as legislators, judges, governors of states, or members of Congress, what evils could not be conjectured as possible? Verily, we have reason as Americans to be profoundly thankful that we have passed so far these possible evils, while so few of them have become actual; but we should improve the years of their delay or absence to make ourselves, as a people, in every section of the country, absolutely secure against them, by making intelligence and virtue universal.

4th. The relation of the adult male illiteracy in the country to the production of wealth in the several states.

Before proceeding to these inferences, we need to recall a most extensive inquiry which was made in the United States Bureau of Education, as to the opinions of the three classes of persons scattered over the country, viz: working people, employ<sup>ed</sup>, and observers.

In regard to the relation of education to industry, we found them all agreeing that, on the average, the ability to read and write adds one-fourth to the productiveness of the rudest manual labor. That is, if men who can not read and write would earn one dollar per day at the rudest manual labor, by adding the ability to read and write they would, on the average, earn one-fourth more, or \$1.25. If thus the 1,554,931 adult males regarded by the census as illiterates should add to their intelligence only sufficiently to read and write, they would, according to these opinions, add annually to the production of the country \$116,612,425, or nearly twice as much as is paid out annually for all the public-school instruction in the United States; or, in Alabama, \$8,133,450, or nearly sixteen times what is now paid for education in that state; or in Arkansas, \$2,796,925, or more than four times what is paid out for education; or in Florida, \$1,543,650, or more than forty times what is now paid for education, and nearly a thirtieth part of the present total wealth of the state; or in Connecticut, \$721,275, or a little more than one-half of the present expenditure for education; or in Delaware, \$542,325, or nearly five times what is now expended for education; or in Massachusetts, \$2,380,650, or about two-thirds of the present expenditure for education; or in New Hampshire, \$254,925, or more than three-fourths of what is now expended for education.

Consider that the same opinions with regard to the relation of education to



industry agreed that an advance beyond reading and writing which gave a man intelligence to do business by himself with facility, or to supervise the business of others, added from 65 to 75 per cent.—say, for convenience, 75 per cent.,—and that for the country it would add to the production of the illiterate adult males \$311,286,200, or nearly five times the total amount expended for education in the entire country.

We do not enter upon the consideration of the relation of education to the increase of invention among a people. The more general the intelligence of the people, as a rule, other things being equal, the greater will be the number of inventions,—the more improvements will be made in machinery, in the various arts of living, in the means of shelter, in wearing-apparel, in food, in the instruments of industry, in the kitchen, in the shop, on the farm, and in the facilities of transportation. These results of the increase of intelligence at the present time are beyond our means of computation.

The numerous and very valuable private efforts to bring to bear statistics for the quickening of different interests in the country, especially those of education, it is not my purpose here to describe. I can only notice further the efforts made in the various schools, and offices of committees, directors, superintendents of cities, counties, states, and in the United States Bureau of Education, to work out these problems.

Great and effective as the summary of the experience of the country as presented in the census once in ten years may be, it was felt by our educators not to be sufficient: it must have the certainty and constancy of the generations. As school officers, teachers, and superintendents, they need constantly the suggestions of the wisest experience.

Under no other government in the world is there equal opportunity. A population of all diversities of origin; a country of vast extent and great natural differences, with so many separate states,—each state allowing a great variety of methods of administration,—all unite in constituting the conditions of an experiment unparalleled. The time has passed when any one asks with a sneer, "Who reads an American book?" The literature of American experience in educational affairs is read throughout the world. Constructed carefully and correctly and adequately, including all the phases of the entire subject of education, we may accept its suggestions with great confidence.

The different systems of hundreds of cities and thousands of towns grouped into the various state reports, constituting a series of state publications unequaled by those from any department of the civil service, were believed to fall short of much of their salutary effect for want of generalization.

These state offices for school supervision constitute in each state important educational statistical bureaus. It was most natural and wise that the educators of the country should demand that these should be summarized and published by the national government. There may be, therefore, now in the collection of national statistics, the confluence of the experience of every school-room and of every teacher. These national reports may put whatever there is valuable from the entire country into the possession of every one thinking, writing, or laboring for the promotion of virtue and intelligence.

It has been our aim to do this promptly, bringing the data included closely up to the time of publication, hoping that the immediate issue of the report

would make what it included of one year's educational experience immediately available for the educators of this country in the next.

This report is published as an Executive Document in December, but its further publication depends upon a vote of Congress. The extra edition for general circulation is, with many other public documents, delayed till August—a delay we regret, but are powerless to prevent.

The rewards of the work are experienced at every step.

President CHARLES W. ELIOT, of Harvard University, invited the Association to visit the grounds, buildings and collections of that institution.

A communication was presented from Prof. W. N. HAILMAN, Kentucky, Dr. ADOLPH DOUAI, New Jersey, and Prof. C. L. HOTZE, Ohio, a committee from the German-American Teachers' Association, expressing the desire of that body to coöperate with this Association, and proffering to present at its next meeting the plans and methods of education in Germany. The communication was received, and the gentlemen named were invited to take part in the deliberations of this Association.

Adjourned.

#### • EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order in Lowell-Institute Hall by the President.

The Committee on Nominations, through its Chairman, Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania, reported the following list of officers for the ensuing year:

##### PRESIDENT.

B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut.

##### VICE-PRESIDENTS.

NEWTON BATEMAN, Illinois.	N. T. LUPTON, Alabama.
GEORGE P. BEARD, Missouri.	A. P. STONE, Maine.
ABNER J. PHIPPS, Massachusetts.	N. A. CALKINS, New York.
EDWARD BROOKS, Pennsylvania.	Miss D. A. LATHROP, Ohio.
JAMES H. BINFORD, Virginia.	W. N. HAILMAN, Kentucky.
JOHN SWETT, California.	N. P. GATES, Arkansas.

##### SECRETARY.

S. H. WHITE, Illinois.

##### TREASURER.

JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio.

##### COUNSELLORS.

E. E. WHITE, Ohio,	} At Large.	Mrs. M. A. STONE, Connecticut.
JOHN EATON, D. C.,		J. H. HOOSE, New York.
WARREN JOHNSON, Maine.		ADOLPH DOUAI, New Jersey.
JUDAH DANA, Vermont.		CHARLES H. VERRILL, Pennsylvania.
D. CROSBY, New Hampshire.		M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
E. A. HUBBARD, Massachusetts.		J. O. WILSON, District of Columbia.
J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island.		A. E. DOLBEAR, West Virginia.

## COUNSELLORS—CONTINUED.

—— WEBSTER, Virginia.	Miss E. D. COPLEY, Kansas.
HENRY B. BLAKE, North Carolina.	GEO. HOWLAND, Illinois.
W. H. BAKER, Georgia.	E. R. STUNTZ, Ohio.
JOSEPH HODGSON, Alabama.	J. NEWBY, Indiana.
Miss H. E. HASSLOCK, Tennessee.	E. OLNEY, Michigan.
W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.	J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin.
Mrs. A. S. KISSELL, Iowa.	H. B. WILSON, Minnesota.

The report was received, and the persons named were elected.

The address of the evening was given by Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN, Illinois, on

## COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The theme assigned me is Compulsory School Attendance.

The verbal formula may be of little consequence, but, aside from the ill-repute into which that form of statement has fallen and the hostile criticism which it unnecessarily invites, I do not think it most fitly expresses the cardinal idea involved. It seems to misplace the emphasis, fixing it upon the children rather than upon the parents, where it should chiefly fall.

Believing, as I do, that the greater fault lies against parents and guardians for refusing or neglecting to send their children and wards to school, and not against the latter for refusing to attend, were I to prepare a law on the subject, I should entitle it, not a bill for an act to compel the attendance of children at school, but a bill for an act to secure to children *their right* to a good common-school education. That is the form in which the question shapes itself most forcibly in my mind, and under that form I should prefer to consider it. With this introductory remark, I take the theme as it reads in the programme.

It will be my aim to maintain and support the two following propositions: Attendance in the public schools of the state should be enjoined by appropriate legislation,—

I. Because such legislation is within the sphere of the proper and reasonable prerogatives of a republican commonwealth.

II. Because such legislation is expedient and necessary.

If these two propositions can be established, the doctrine of legislative interposition to arrest the evils of absenteeism and truancy, and to secure the rights and benefits of education to the youth of the state, will also be established.

I. First, then: A state legislature may legitimately undertake to deal with the question of school attendance.

This proposition simply affirms that the people of a commonwealth may properly take this matter in hand. For, behind general assemblies are massed the people, the formal embodiment and promulgation of whose will, judgment, or moral convictions, as the case may be, is legislation. Whatever matters and interests, therefore, fall legitimately within the handling of the people, as the supreme and authoritative body-politic, come also within the jurisdiction of

general assemblies, the people's representative agents and servants. All of our theories and practices as American states and communities conform to and rest upon these maxims of civil government—none, in this country, deny them.

Now, there are certain things which are essential to the very *existence* of an organized civil community, even in its most rudimentary form. Most of these primary conditions are so obvious and imperative as to have the spontaneous and almost universal assent of the members of the community. Among them are the rights and immunities of person and property.

So self-evident are these initial requirements of civil and municipal existence, that little or no opposition to the enforcement of them is encountered. Life and property *must* be protected—it is the instinctive, spontaneous and absolute decree of the popular will that they shall be. But, in stead of each man, club or pistol in hand, standing guard over his own property, and becoming his own swift and irresponsible avenger of blood, the popular will on these subjects passes on to legislative halls, thence to reappear in the form of penal and criminal laws for the repression and punishment of murder, robbery, burglary, arson, etc. And for the enforcement of these just and necessary enactments there are the jail, the dungeon, the gibbet, and the mailed hands of the officers of the law, supported, if need be, by the resistless posse.

These elementary laws are all compulsory. Force stands ever in the background, ready to uphold the majesty of the law, or to execute the decrees of courts. Without this element of force ever in reserve, and known so to be, criminal and punitive codes would be but chaff before the whirlwind, affording no protection at all against the insurgent passions of lawless men.

There stands the enactment, formulating the popular mind and conscience and will, grounded upon a primal necessity of civil society, of most beneficent intent, a pledge for the safety of every well-disposed citizen. For such it has no terrors—utters no menace—infringes no right—challenges no opposition—inspires no odium. Armed, indeed, is it with the high prerogatives of power; a glittering sword does indeed lurk beneath the folds of its robe. But that is only for the assassin and thief, for the prowling burglar and the midnight incendiary. Until awakened by one of these, that blade sleeps, concealed amid the verbal draperies of the law, gently as the head of infancy upon the maternal breast. But then, its leap from its hiding-place is terrible and sure.

Having established those elementary safeguards, the inchoate community is soon pressed by other needs, demanding other legislative provisions. Roads, highways and streets, bridges, market-places and public buildings, and countless other improvements and structures, are required, in rapid succession, for the comfort and convenience of the people, and for the transaction of accumulating public business. To lay out and construct these, much labor and skill and large sums of money are necessary. No one man, or the fractional part of the community, has the strength or resources for such extensive and costly enterprises; nor would it be just to impose the whole burden upon one, or a part, even if there were ability to assume it. The work must be done by associated effort—by united hands and purses. It is for all, and all must participate in the labor and cost, each according to his ability. To construct and maintain the roads and highways, the whole able-bodied male population is called out,

and must respond, either in person or by a money equivalent sufficient to employ a substitute.

The general revenue needful for public uses is secured by a device called taxation. Discreet persons are chosen to estimate the value of every man's possessions of whatsoever kind; the aggregate of these values is compared with the total amount required for public uses, and therefrom is deduced the number of mills or cents which each man must pay on every dollar's worth of his possessions. Particular times and places are designated, when and where every man is to repair and pay over the sums due, to the persons appointed by the community, as its agents, to receive the same.

Now, it would seem that a contrivance so simple as this, so necessary for the public good, so manifestly just and equitable, might be safely left to the voluntary acceptance and compliance of the people, without legislation, or coercive provisions. But, however reasonable such expectation, experience demonstrates it to be fallacious. Citizens are not wanting who, without a blush, use the bridges and highways, and enjoy all the public improvements and conveniences, to the making, building and maintenance of which they did not and will not contribute a farthing. This increases the burdens of the rest, who justly complain of the wrong, and again the community must seek redress through the authoritative forms of law, armed with penal provisions, and, in the last resort, with the full power of the physical arm. If a selfish property-holder will not pay his proportion of taxes voluntarily, he is compelled to pay them. In default, the indignant people at last, through their own accredited agents, the officers of the law, take his property, with the strong hand, and sell it, forcing him to bear his just part in the common and necessary burdens of the commonwealth.

The same is true of assessments levied to maintain a police force to protect the lives and property of citizens and insure the public peace and tranquillity—to establish and support a fire department, that shall be ever ready to rescue the homes and possessions of the people from the devastating flames—to build strongholds for the safe custody of criminals and outlaws, and numberless other purposes demanded by the common weal. The people have sent all these assessments through the forms of law, and environed them, every one, with compulsory provisions directed against the selfish, the unintelligent, and the unreasonable. The tax that avarice or stupidity or obstinacy will not pay for these beneficent and necessary uses is extorted, even from the clenched fist of the desperate recusant, by the iron grip of the ministers of the law.

The things thus far enumerated belong, it is true, to civil society in its more rudimentary forms, and, being manifestly essential thereto, none but the depraved or stupid, the moral bedouins of the body-politic, deny that they are all proper subjects of compulsory and punitive legislation.

But do the prerogatives of government, that is, of the people in their sovereign capacity, cease with the establishment and maintenance of these elementary principles of social and political order? Does the supremacy of the people, acting through general assemblies which do but reflect and make effective that supremacy, stop, of necessity, with the care of these material interests of the commonwealth? Must the column of governmental forces be preemptorily halted on the very line that divides the lower from the higher plane of civiliza-

tion—at the very foot of the mount of social and political transfiguration? May the people, through those of their number chosen for the purpose, called legislators, pass laws that shall help to put bread into hungry mouths, hats on uncovered heads, coats on naked backs, and shoes on bare feet, but not dare to recognize greater needs and deeper cravings? Is the work of a community done, are its powers exhausted, when the cry “What shall we eat, and what shall we drink, and wherewithal shall we be clothed?” has been regarded? Who says to governments, striving to evolve a nobler civilization, “Thus far, but no further”? What high decree of God or of men strikes the sceptre from the popular hand the moment it would summon the masses from the dusty highways and sordid market-places, out to green fields and sunlit mountains? Who has been commissioned to roll a red sea of perpetual despair in front of the children of men, as they would fain fly toward the land of promise, from the task-masters of Egypt?

Passing, now, the further analysis of the primary and inalienable rights and powers of the people, which these inquiries challenge—how is it in point of fact? Do legislatures, as the fiduciaries of the people, renounce their sovereignty at the outer threshold of God’s temples of grace and beauty—not daring to enter? Do the people always stay contentedly in the workshop, and amid the bales and casks of commerce, never daring to approach the Beautiful Gates, and swarm out where bright fields, the minstrelsy of birds and glory-tinted skies invite? Are our statutes limited to the bare necessities and material utilities of life? Is the strong arm invoked for naught beyond the domain of our common and lower needs and comforts?

Let the millions paid, willingly paid for the most part, here in republican America, in the form of taxes and assessments levied and collected by state and municipal law for gigantic reservoirs and costly water-works—for lake tunnels and Croton and Cochituate aqueducts—for Central Parks, and other parks and pleasure-grounds innumerable—for public fountains, gardens and promenades—for public museums, galleries of art, academies of music, libraries and reading-rooms—for flooding the streets and public buildings with artificial light by night—for memorial statues and structures in granite and bronze and marble, and a hundred other forms of public ministry to the demands of æsthetic culture—of elegance, taste and beauty—let all these, so familiar and so valued, be the emphatic answer.

The people rise to a conception and appreciation of these things; they desire them, believe it right to have them, and resolve to have them. And then, as in all other instances, so in this, their will at length passes on to legislative halls, and is recorded in imperative statutes—money is wanted for *beauty* as well as for *bread*, for art as well as for trade. The mandate goes forth and searches out and hunts down every tax-payer, and just behind stand the same inexorable, mail-clad, resistless sentinels and servitors of the law, armed with the powers and weapons of compulsion. Is the assessment for a park, a fountain, or a statue? it must be paid under the same penalties and at the peril of the same coercion as if it were for a bridge, a prison, or an almshouse.

Now, these things lie *beyond* the iron orbit of hard material necessities, out in the blue firmament where play the forces of a higher civilization, where the inspirations of art and taste and beauty have recognition. And yet the regency

of the people over them, through the law-making power, is acknowledged. They are, to-day, among the familiar subjects of federal, state and municipal legislation.

In direct alignment with the examples just noted is the history and development of free public education in this country. The idea of free schools, established and supported by the state, was born of the political sagacity, far-reaching wisdom and sanctified common sense of the New-England Fathers, who builded their moral, social and political institutions upon foundations as enduring as the rocks of their own sea-girt colonies. The splendid results of that grand idea have been the admiration of observing nations for more than a hundred years. It was a seminal and diffusive truth that was planted by those hardy, liberty-loving men of God. It enfolded the germinal principles, the essential elements, of our political system—the vital ideas of a free republican state. It has been adopted by nearly every commonwealth from the lakes to the gulf, and from sea to sea.

How has it attained this universal recognition—this firm intrenchment in the laws? Just as all the other popular measures to which reference has been made. It commended itself to the judgment of the people; it was seen to be essential to the public welfare, and the people therefore decreed that it should be put in practice. Their decree went up to general assemblies and was there reissued in the form of state school-laws, with all the machinery required for their enforcement. And now, in all those free-school states, every property-owner, resident or non-resident, bachelor, or patriarch, whether personally friendly or hostile to the system, must pay the school-tax assessed against him. The whole power of the state is in reserve to enforce the law and collect the tax, and the people, almost with one voice, say it is right. But now, when it is proposed to go a step further, in precisely the same direction, in the same moral and political plane, in furtherance of precisely the same ends, and seek such additional legislation as will tend to perfect and consummate the whole work—as will utilize the enormous expenditures of money and secure the largest possible harvest for the intellectual and moral garners of the commonwealth,—a sudden halt is sounded all along the line, and notes of apprehension and alarm are heard. Thus: Preach the gospel of universal education by free public schools, they say; it is the only gospel of political safety. Ballots for all, without knowledge for all, is the precipitous road to anarchy and despotism. Establish your school-systems, with all their intricate and nicely-adjusted machinery, and their tens of thousands of school-officers and fiduciary agents. Let the school-houses rise and their bells ring out from every hillside and valley, from every cross-roads and prairie. Seek out, train and employ the choicest men and women of the land to instruct and teach the children of the people, with a wise disregard of false economy as to wages. Furnish and equip, with a lavish hand, the buildings and grounds, with whatsoever is required for the work of instruction, or demanded by the rules of convenience and taste. And for all these things *tax* the people. Tax them, if need be, to the utmost limits of state law, municipal law, local district law, and sub-district law. Tax them on all realty and personalty; let no description or class of property escape. Tax them for buildings, furniture and apparatus; for books and libraries; for grounds and appurtenances, and for the improvement and ornamenta-

tion thereof. Tax them for superintendents and assistant-superintendents; for head-masters and principals; for teachers and assistant-teachers; for special instructors and lecturers; for penmanship, music and drawing; for culture in science, art and language. Tax them for primary schools, intermediate schools, grammar schools, high schools, normal schools, scientific and polytechnic schools, agricultural schools and colleges, and, if you will, for a great free university at the head of all. Tax them for the salaries and wages of school-officers and employés, from state superintendents and secretaries of boards of education, down to janitors, messengers, and errand-boys; for the commissions and expenses of overseers, collectors and treasurers. Tax with a free hand, and with no niggardly stint, that nothing be wanting, for the people must be educated. If any refuse to pay, bring down upon them the strong arm, and make them pay; enforce the law, seize and sell their goods and property, and extort the tax, for the youth of this nation must be educated. Do all these things without hesitation or fear; replenish and fill your school treasuries from the pockets of the people, and keep them full, in city, town and country. Spare no pains, omit no duty, exercise every power conferred by law, for the very life of the republic depends upon the education of all the people. *But*, let there be *no compulsion* in the matter of *attendance*. Any legislation on that subject would be un-American, anti-republican, arbitrary, despotic, odious. Every parent must be left at perfect liberty to avail himself of these princely provisions or not, and to educate his child or leave it in ignorance, as he may elect; and where there is no parental control, the right of the child to go to school or stay away must on no account be infringed or abridged. These are matters with which the government, even though that government be but the embodiment and utterance of the popular will, has no business to meddle. Reserved and sacred precincts are these, into which no impertinent school-law may presume to intrude. The very idea of pressure in this direction is offensive, and repugnant to the spirit of our institutions.

Moreover, say they, such legislation will do no good; it will not reach the evil—the spirits of absenteeism and truancy can not be so exorcised. It will merely offend and alienate, without materially adding to the muster-rolls of the schools. And besides, it is in vain to pass laws in advance of public sentiment; they will be an irritation and offense, while practically remaining a dead letter. And again, if parents may be compelled to educate their children as the state prescribes in things secular and temporal, they may also in things religious and spiritual, and thus the inviolable realm of conscience may be invaded. Only make the schools themselves what they should be, and the maximum attendance will be attained without legislation. In every view, therefore, the attempt to reach the question of attendance in this way is impolitic and unnecessary, and would prove inoperative and mischievous.

This summarizes, not unfairly, I think, the pith of what is urged on the other side. I will not characterize these objections as preposterous, but I do say that they will not bear the light of reason, analysis, and experience. And first, as to the allegation that such legislation would be un-American; a new and dangerous assumption of power; an alarming perversion of the governmental function.

Notice, it is with the prerogatives of republican commonwealths, supreme



political communities, that we are dealing; not with private associations or organizations within the orbit of the sovereign authority. We are concerned with what the *people*, massed as a substantive unit, have the authority and power to do, through their own forms and appliances of government.

It is, then, but the utterance of an irrefragable political truth to declare, as I do declare, that all secular human governments depend, in the last resort, upon bayonets and bomb-shells. Compulsion, the power of enforcing obedience, is the bed-rock on which every organized human government, of whatsoever kind, rests down, and on which it must abide and will abide till the Golden Age of the race, of which poets sing, and for which Christians pray, shall be ushered in.

In the rear of every mandate of autocrat or despot; of every statute enacted by Parliament, Congress, or General Assembly; of every decree promulgated by tribunals of justice, round the globe, are drawn up, in silent, waiting, serried ranks, the grim legions of *force*. Their symbols of office are sabres and Gatling guns; their arguments are grape-shot and steel. Their work begins when that of legislatures and courts ceases to be effective. I speak figuratively, but the figure expresses a truth, palpable, universal, and unquestionable: the truth that physical force, the power of compulsion, supplements, underlies, and environs, of absolute necessity, all organized secular human governments; all national, state and municipal legislation, and all judicial decrees—the truth that, without this investiture of force, and the right to invoke its presence and aid when emergencies demand, every form of government among men would be liable to go to pieces with the first insurrectionary outbreak or convulsion. Of all optimistic political chimeras, the wildest and most fallacious is the notion that all the affairs of mundane states and nations can be conducted on strictly Sunday-school principles.

This element of force, this reserved right of coercion, runs through our whole political system from top to bottom. It confronts us every where. For rebellion and treason it sets in motion the army and the navy, sweeps land and sea with the crimson tempest of war, and *drives* insurgent states back to their spheres within the orbit of the Union; for murder it has the terrible retribution of the scaffold; for robbery, arson, forgery, and other high crimes, it builds the grim walls of prisons, jails and dungeons; for mutiny on shipboard, its fetters are ever in readiness; for desertion from the army in the face of the enemy, it has drum-head courts-martial, and death by musketry; for rebellion against the tax-laws, it decrees the seizure and sale of goods and property; for innumerable minor offenses against the provisions of law and the peace and order of society, it has temporary imprisonments, fines, forfeitures, and countless other punishments and disabilities. In each and every case, in the last resort, it meets the culprit with clenched fists, not with moral precepts—it takes him by the throat, not by the hand.

Grading the penalty to the crime or the wrong, this strong hand is omnipresent and ubiquitous. We live and move, by land and by sea, by day and night, in an atmosphere of law, surcharged every where and every moment with the electricity of force; and if no red bolt descends upon our heads, it is simply because we obey the laws and behave ourselves. We are here quietly assembled in this godly city, fearing nothing; yet, let us but defy the laws, and

every one of us would find a Boston jail before the next sunrise—from every street the guardians of the peace would rush upon us and hurry us off to the police-station.

How idle, then, to arraign this inseparable element of all civil government as odious and dangerous, the moment it is proposed to extend it to another public interest of transcendent importance and magnitude, and one, too, the entire control of which has already been assumed by the state. For, in conceding the right of a commonwealth to make and enforce all other laws pertaining to public schools, the whole case is conceded. The enforcement of suitable laws in relation to attendance would be incomparably less repugnant than that of the provisions of many existing school-laws, which have ceased to challenge opposition.

Our free-school systems are already compulsory at every step. Why, then, should the hand of the state be stayed at the critical moment, at the supreme point where the object of all is to be gained or lost, through fear of a little more compulsion of the same sort? Who can tell why?

It is not proposed to drag children to school, *vi et armis*, as some seem to imagine. That is but a goblin of the fancy, and, like all other phantoms of the brain, vanishes into thin air when closely confronted and interrogated. The proposed legal incentives to attendance, unfortunately called compulsion, belong to the simplest and most familiar category of legislative provisions. They are mildness itself, compared with the penalties affixed to each of a hundred other statutes, to which the people have been accustomed all their lives, and which, though really so, they have never thought of as compulsory at all.

To illustrate, I will read the material sections of a bill on this subject, introduced into the legislature of my own state last winter:

"A BILL FOR AN ACT TO SECURE THE ATTENDANCE OF CHILDREN AT SCHOOL.

"Section 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly*, that every person having under his control a child between the ages of eight and fourteen years shall annually, during the continuance of his control, send such child to some public school in the school-district in which he resides, at least twelve weeks, if the public school of such district so long continues, six weeks of which time shall be consecutive; and for every neglect of such duty the party offending shall forfeit, to the use of such school-district, a sum not exceeding twenty dollars.

Section 2. The penalty provided for in section one shall not be imposed in cases where it appears, upon the inquiry of the directors of any school-district, or upon the trial of any prosecution, that the party so neglecting was not able, by reason of poverty, to send such child to school, or to furnish him or her with the necessary clothing and books, or that such child has been kept in any other school for said period of time, or has already acquired the branches of learning taught in the public schools, or that his or her bodily or mental condition has been such as to prevent his or her attendance at school or application to study for the period required."

That is all! Is it not frightful! And yet no other state has proposed any thing much more terrible, so far as I know.

Now, compare these mild, inoffensive and reasonable requirements with the penal provisions of nearly every statute of the civil code, in every state and municipality of the republic, and then recall the array of rough expletives employed to characterize such a harmless thing as the one I have read—"odious,

despotic, arbitrary, inquisitorial, repugnant, un-American, anti-republican, invasive of private rights, monstrous," *et cetera, et ceterumque*,—and tell me if the cratered mountain, that was to burst forth in regurgitations of smoke and fire to whelm the liberties of the people, as pictured by the disordered fancies of some, does not dwindle to an ant-hill, of exceedingly diminutive, not to say contemptible, proportions!

I have said that our general free-school laws, aside from the question of attendance, are themselves compulsory. They are, indeed, conspicuously so, through and through, and from beginning to end. Read the provisions contained in all state school laws, and note how largely the voluntary element is excluded; how mandatory their requirements, how absolute and peremptory the control. Note the plenary powers vested in boards of directors to make and enforce rules and regulations; their unlimited jurisdiction over the time, conduct and studies of pupils. See how these powers, armed with the authority of summary suspension or expulsion, accompany and environ the children every where—pursuing them through the streets; following them to their homes; dictating, even there, how a portion of their time shall be spent; penetrating the sanctuary of the domestic circle, modifying the hours of meals and other household arrangements. Note how the state lays its authoritative hand upon the minds of the children, dictating what they shall study; upon their bodies, even to the infliction of stripes, for flagrant misdeeds; upon their manners and morals, by inhibitions and requirements, pains and penalties, for infractions of codes to which the assent of parents has not been asked; upon the very right to remain in school at all, authorizing suspension or expulsion at the absolute discretion of the school-board, and that, too, in some states, as in Illinois, without any legal recourse or redress by action against the board.

Notice with what surprising unanimity the supreme judiciaries of all the great states, of Massachusetts conspicuously, have sustained the maintenance and exercise, by school-boards, of these extraordinary powers over the minds, bodies, time, manners, studies, rights and privileges of the youth of the country while in the public schools; how rarely the courts, supreme or inferior, have interposed against the prerogatives of teachers and school-officers, declaring strict discipline and implicit obedience to be essential to the public welfare.

Consider all these things, and that, with nearly equal unanimity, the people accept or acquiesce in this order of things, seeing it to be essential to the supreme end for which the schools exist, and then recall again the vehemence with which mild and considerate legislation like that which I have read is assailed on account of its compulsory character.

Why, not five months ago, the legislature of Illinois passed a law imposing upon teachers a fine of five hundred dollars, and incarcerating their bodies twelve calendar months in the county jail, for using in their own schools a book or piece of apparatus in which they might, as authors, inventors, or otherwise, chance to have an interest to the amount of one penny; and that is now the law of that state—and, strange to say, while the people have their opinions as to the wisdom and justice of the law, there is no rebellion or convulsion, because it is admitted that the evil aimed at so clumsily *ought* to be extirpated. But the imposition of a petty fine of twenty dollars to induce parents to *accept*

the *precious boon* of education for their children is odious compulsion, subversive of the foundations of personal liberty, if not of the government itself!

The allegation that laws to secure attendance at school are unwarrantably invasive of public rights, and an abuse of the proper functions of government, is answered by reference to other notable facts. Not to speak of the extreme war-powers of the government, under color of which husbands, fathers, sons and brothers are seized and hurried to the battle-field, property of every description taken for public uses, with or without the owner's consent; ships, railroads and telegraph-lines laid under forced contributions, their rightful owners driven off, and government officers placed in command; the people and resources of the whole country regarded as merely so much material for the common defense—not to speak of these desperate but familiar examples of coercion, there are multitudes of others, scarcely less arbitrary, which belong to times of peace.

In periods of extreme danger or necessity, even sumptuary laws, of sweeping character, have been patiently submitted to, the right of the people, through their own constituted government, to protect themselves against impending danger, from *whatsoever* cause, not being denied. A law denounced by its enemies as of this odious class went into effect in my own state on the first day of last month—a general and stringently-penal statute concerning the sale of ardent spirits. It received an overwhelming majority of votes in each House of Assembly, notwithstanding the outcries against its compulsory provisions and protests against its alleged invasions of personal liberty.

So, let but the shadow of approaching pestilence touch our shores, and instantly the hygienic decrees of municipal legislatures and boards of health are as stern and absolute as the edicts of the Cæsars. Every incoming ship is brought-to, at quarantine, as peremptorily as if she meditated the bombardment of the city; and if she should fail to respect the signal, a shot across her bows would be speedily followed by another *amidships*. The vessel may be returning from a long voyage, no taint of disease may in fact be on board, hundreds of weary people may be within a league of their homes; no heed is paid to them: pestilence threatens the great city, and the ship shall not proceed till inspected by the health-officer. Read the proclamations that ring through the city at such times, commanding all men every where instantly to remove every nuisance, and to cleanse and disinfect their premises. And upon the least reported neglect, see the officers and employés of the health-brigade hurrying and swarming through the city, searching the dark purlieus, entering every suspected house, breaking down doors if opposed, peering into squalid nooks and corners, issuing peremptory orders, and *compelling* every body, rich or poor, to obey the commands of the sanitary board—or else themselves doing what is required, and compelling the owners to pay the expense. Only three weeks ago, when the death-rate in New York increased so frightfully under the dog-day heats of July, some twenty-five families, the papers say, were actually turned temporarily into the streets, driven out of their dwelling-places by the police, because the reeking dens in which they lived imperiled the public health.

So of the ordinary enactments concerning nuisances—the regulation of markets and market-places, the obstruction of streets and alleys, the abuse of

public parks and buildings, the erection of houses within the fire-limits, and other things innumerable. They are all compulsory, sternly so; they all in one sense abridge the personal liberty of the individual citizen; but, because the *public good demands them*, they are enforced. And now, when the country is menaced by an evil which no quarantine can avert; when a malady is fastening itself upon the body-politic that is beyond the skill of boards of health; when a shadow is settling down upon the country the end whereof is political death, and the people see it and know it, and believe that there is but one remedy, why should they not apply it?

I must here rest the defense of the first proposition. I think it has been shown that a state or municipal legislature may properly undertake to deal with this question of school attendance—that such legislation is not foreign to the appropriate sphere and functions of a republican government.

II. Laws to secure attendance at school, that is, to secure to children their rights of education, are expedient and necessary.

Under this head a very few words shall suffice. If the competency of a state to include this as among the proper subject of legislation has been established, it only remains to consider the conditions and circumstances under which the power should be exercised.

It is said that such laws can not be enforced; that public sentiment is against them; that for a legislature to take a position a thousand moral leagues in advance of public opinion, and attempt to pull the people forward by a legal tow-line, is as chimerical as for a man-of-war to essay to take one of the islands of the sea into port with cable and hawser—that, in the one case as surely as in the other, the lines will be snapped asunder by the strain, leaving the mass unmoved.

That is partly a truism, and partly a begging of the question. So much of it as affirms that laws (admitting there may be such) to which a majority of the people are actively opposed can not be executed is a truism; like saying that a pyramid can not stand upon its apex. So much as assumes that public sentiment is hostile to such legislation begs the question.

It might be said that, in a form of government like ours, the enactment of a law presupposes and implies popular approval thereof, legislation in this country being, as has already been repeated, but the crystallization of the popular will into legal forms. But, while there is not a little truth in that view, it may be considered as rather the argument of lawyers, and I do not care to press it—especially as other resources of reply are abundant.

It is true, and must therefore be admitted, that measures may be introduced into legislative bodies and become laws, not only without the supporting column of electors of the commonwealth, but in actual antagonism with the popular judgment. Instances are not wanting, indeed, where the printed statute has conveyed to the astonished masses their first knowledge of the matters contained therein. These are the laws which can not, and some of which ought not to, be enforced, having in them no vitalizing leaven of popular ideas and purposes, even if not conceived in mischief and treason to the public weal. They belong, for the most part, to that infamous category known in these days as “ring legislation,” the work of rogues and demagogues, taking “snap judg-

ment" on the people by rushing their corrupt measures through, before even a rumor thereof can reach their outraged constituents—or else, by mercenary combinations and conspiracies, defying the people.

But when a great public issue, intrinsically vital, far-reaching and aggressive, inviting criticism and assault, is separately and distinctly set before the people for examination and discussion; when that issue is discussed, thoroughly and exhaustively, and the whole body of electors are made familiar with it, and choose their delegates to the legislature with reference to it; and when a clear majority of the known friends of that measure are elected, and the contest is transferred from the hustings to legislative halls, and is again fought triumphantly through, and promulgated as the law of the land,—*that law is the will of the people, intrenched in their convictions, representing their moral sentiments, and challenging their respect and support,—and it will be enforced.*

Now, has this great question of securing to all children the rights of education ever been thus canvassed before the people? Has it ever been discussed in all its bearings, in conventions and mass-meetings, in the press and on the "stump," from city to city, town to town, and school-house to school-house, as other exciting public questions have been? If so, when and where? If not, how can it be said that public sentiment is opposed to it, or is not ready for it?

If, in any commonwealth, this question has been made the issue, or one of the issues, in the contest for seats in the legislature, were the candidates accepting and standing upon that issue defeated? If so, in what state, and when? If not, how is it known, or how can it be assumed, that in such a contest such candidates would be defeated? If, in any state, such a contest has been had, the friends of compulsory laws elected, the laws passed, and it was then found that they could not be carried into effect, could not be enforced, when and in what state did it happen? If there has been no such instance, how can it be affirmed that such laws, so passed, could not be enforced?

The fact is that this issue has never been fairly tried before the American people, in any state. The argument in favor of such laws is so overwhelming, that the movement of the people would be like the waves of the sea, did they but understand it. It is not hostility, but ignorance of the true situation, and the distorted notions and apathy that accompany such ignorance.

Our politicians, as a class, know little and care less about public education, or its place down among the profoundest elements of national life. The utterance of a few graceful (or gracious) platitudes, now and then, where personal thrift may be served thereby, is about all that the average politician attempts, or is equal to, indeed. There are conspicuous and illustrious exceptions—but they are *exceptions*. The indifference, apathy and downright ignorance of the great body of our public men, in respect to the nature, needs, operations and possibilities of our systems of popular instruction, and of the paramount claims of the problem of universal education to the most thoughtful study of every one who would know even the rudiments of true statesmanship, are facts as conspicuous as they are disgraceful and lamentable—facts that astonish and bewilder the publicists of Germany and other enlightened nations of Europe, and are a just opprobrium to us in the eyes of the world. In confirmation, I might here mention instances, occurring in the high places of honor and trust in the states and in the nation, that are simply astounding. Hence, when it is con-

sidered how largely American public opinion receives its impulse and trend from political leaders, it is no marvel that the people are so slow to grasp these higher ideas of education, and so ready to doubt and disparage them.

Let the claims of public education—the development of the intellect, the brain-power and heart-power of the whole body of youth,—be set before the country as they really are, in the clear, honest, white light of history, of reason and of facts. Let it be affirmed, as it ought to be affirmed, that all other political questions are dwarfed in the presence of the supreme inquiry How shall the youth of the nation be educated—fitted to be the depositaries of the jewel of civil and religious liberty, the custodians of national honor in arts and in arms? Let the fact be every where proclaimed that the government of these United States, with all the delicate equipoises of its constitution and laws; the momentous questions of peace and war, of finance and commerce, of the myriad industries of the people—that this government and nation, with its splendid history and traditions, and its garnered hopes and prophecies for the political future of the nations of the earth, is, in very truth, in the hands and at the mercy of electors unable to read one word of its great constitution, one word of its laws and their judicial expositions, one word of its illustrious history, one word even of the fateful ballots in their hands—by whom, at any general election, it may be hurled from the paths of national rectitude and honor, or precipitated into the gulf of anarchy. Let it be shown to what enormous dimensions the evils of non-attendance and truancy have grown, the incredible waste of money and other educational resources thereby entailed, and the alarming fact that, even in states where the schools are the best, and where the powers of the voluntary principle have been most nearly exhausted, the ratio of absenteeism has not been materially reduced. Let the eyes of the people be turned toward the constantly-augmenting hosts of ignorant young men annually crossing, in careless procession, the line of manhood and assuming the ballot, and the super-added multitudes of equally ignorant electors, recruited by naturalization, from the teeming myriads pouring into the country from the old world, from every quarter of the globe. Let the inevitable consequences of the exposure of this unintelligent and heterogeneous mass of voters to the arts and wiles of unprincipled demagogues be portrayed. Let these facts and impending perils be made the themes of powerful leaders in the great newspapers of the country, day after day, week after week, and month after month, as the comparatively paltry and ephemeral issues of partisan politics are; let them find earnest thinkers and eloquent tongues in conventions, mass-meetings, lyceums, lecture-halls and pulpits, and be thundered forth with vehement earnestness, pungent appeal and fiery rhetoric from every “stump” in the land, and then see which way the tide of public sentiment will set! In less than twelve months the people would be thundering at the doors of general assemblies *demanding* compulsory laws, and opposition to their enforcement would be as chaff before the storm. With one-tenth the study, argument and eloquence bestowed upon some of the comparatively trifling political questions of the hour, questions as inferior in dignity and importance as the by-laws of a base-ball club are to the Ten Commandments, there would be an opening of the graves of apathy, and a resurrection into life, in behalf of popular education, that would shake the country from Oregon to Florida. It is the merest trifling to say that the people

are opposed to propositions which have never been placed distinctly before them, or indifferent to perils which they ignorantly do not believe to impend — propositions and dangers which have been always and every where overshadowed and pushed aside by other issues.

Think of the thousands of square rods of double-leaded leaders on Mr. GREELEY and General GRANT, that will be written and printed between this and November, all to prove that one or the other should be at the head of the government the next four years — while these questions, which take hold of the destinies of the nation for the next four centuries, and for all time, will scarcely receive a passing notice. Unless we look to the education of the people, we shall not much longer have a country of which any honest man would care to be president. With an educated and upright people, we may defy the worst man whom God may suffer to be elected president — he can not do much mischief; while with an ignorant and depraved people, the best president that ever sat in the seat of WASHINGTON would be powerless.

But it is said, when public opinion is thus prepared for compulsory laws, there will be no need of them; since, by the very conditions supposed, the pressure of public sentiment will of itself be sufficient to suppress absenteeism. Then what need of legislation on any subject that has the general approval? Public opinion is overwhelmingly in favor of federal, state, county, municipal and local taxation, as a means of raising revenue for necessary public uses. Are revenue and tax laws therefore unnecessary? Should they be abolished, and the voluntary principle established? What would be the effect of such an amiable and credulous policy upon the collectors' next delinquent lists! Laws are for the negligent, the remiss, the selfish and mercenary; not for those who cheerfully acknowledge and punctually perform their duties as citizens. Thousands pay their taxes because they *must*, and for no other reason. Shall those who pay willingly, because it is *right*, object to the law that compels their neighbors to bear their share in the common burdens? There can be no reasonable doubt that the effect of laws to secure attendance at school would be substantially the same as the effect of tax laws — securing action from a like proportion of those who would not otherwise act. Nor do I believe that the instances of the enforcement of penalties would be any greater in the former case than in the latter — the simple existence of the law would, as a general rule, be sufficient. That is the uniform experience in respect to the force and operation of all laws that are accompanied with penal provisions.

It is further to be said that such laws are demanded by the plainest principles of justice. The state undertakes to give all its youth a good common-school education. School systems are grounded and operated on this idea. Under this plea, taxes are collected and the whole costly and complicated machinery is kept in motion. It is for the instruction of all, not of one-half, or two-thirds, or any other fraction. This is the attitude of the state toward every citizen and tax-payer; this is the nature of the covenant between the commonwealth and the people. By the payment of all taxes and assessments for school purposes, the citizen so far fulfills his part of the engagement, and has a clear moral right to demand that the state shall fulfill hers. If a man owes a thousand dollars, and has promised to pay it, is it honest to claim a receipt in full on payment of five hundred dollars? The state has virtually promised to edu-



cate all its youth; it is abundantly able to redeem that promise—unlimited powers and resources are at its command for that purpose. How, then, can a full discharge be claimed while the obligation is but half performed?

When the state, in the person of a school-tax collector, approaches a citizen and demands his money for the support of schools, and is repelled as a swindler, attempting to obtain money under false pretenses; promising to educate all, able to educate all, yet in fact educating but one-third, or one-half, refusing to make good its solemn covenants—what answer can be made? None whatever. The commonwealth stands self-condemned and speechless before the grave charge of that indignant citizen. Has not every tax-payer the right so to challenge the conduct of a state that exacts the full measure of tax, and yet neglects or refuses to comply with the conditions on which alone the power to tax at all was conferred by the people?

The expediency and necessity of laws to secure the education of youth may also be argued on the same grounds that the high duty of preventive legislation in respect to crime is maintained. Too much praise can not be awarded those who are seeking to reform the criminal classes, and give them back to society fitted again for the duties and trusts of citizenship. But it is surely as wise to seek to prevent crime, to lessen the number of criminals, as to reform those who have already become such.

I shall not argue the proposition that culture lessens crime. The proof has already been piled up mountain high, both from reason and experience. The reports of social science and prison associations, in Europe and America, are replete with irrefutable facts and statistics in demonstration of the truth that the incarnate devils of lust, passion and crime are exorcised by the angels of light and knowledge to an amazing degree. Indeed, there are some doctrines against which the healthy mind instinctively recoils, by a swift, irrepressible, *a priori* impulse, without waiting for, or needing, the slower processes of logical induction. Of such is the monstrous doctrine that malign propensities and tiger-like passions are as much at home in minds filled with the resources and glory of knowledge, in bosoms hallowed by moral sentiments and softened by culture, as in stolid, stupid and besotted souls. When savage beasts leave the forest and jungle, to make their lairs amid the roses and fountains of our parks and gardens, then may that thing be.

Now, the state has a right to utilize this blessed law, whereby the enlargement of the nobler sentiments dwarfs, or supplants and expels the baser. It has a right to lift the children out of, and above, the fogs and swamps of sensualism, coarseness and savagery, into the knowledge and desire of a better and richer life. It has the same right to protect society in advance, through the schools, that it has afterwards, by reform-schools, or by locking up or hanging the criminals. Prevention is not only easier and cheaper than cure, but infinitely more humane and noble.

If, therefore, the duty of protecting society from the actually vile and criminal is imperative, and if power is necessarily commensurate with duty, then the obligation and authority to seek the same object from the other end of the line are equally imperative and unquestionable. It is to be said, too, that the class that would be chiefly reached by compulsory laws are the very ones most in need

of the rescue—the children of the avaricious and depraved, and the teeming thousands from foreign lands.

Finally, the expediency and present necessity for legislative interposition to shield the children of the state from the dangers and the wrong of ignorance may be urged with unanswerable force from the statistics of absenteeism, truancy and illiteracy in this country. It is an incontrovertible fact that the voluntary plan is but partially successful. The proof is as overwhelming as it is alarming. The evidence is comprehensive and cumulative. It pours in from every state and territory, and from all the chief cities of the republic. The reports of state and city superintendents, and of the national Commissioner of Education, are burdened with the sad details. The number of absentees and truants in our chief commercial metropolis was reported, eight years ago, as a mighty army, 100,000 strong, and subsequent reports show little comparative improvement. Uncounted thousands of vagrant, lawless children prowl the streets, and roam through all the purlieus of all our great cities, becoming precocious in wickedness, and going down with frightful precipitation to the nethermost abysses of vice, pollution and shame. Taking all the states from which reports are at hand, and the number who are even enrolled in any given year averages less than half the total school-going population, while the average daily attendance is less than one-fifth of that population.

But the fact that has most to do with the present inquiry is, that a comparison of the statistics of the last decade shows but very slight improvement in the ratio of attendants to non-attendants, taking all the states and cities into the account; while in many the change has even been for the worse—disproving the view that the evil is steadily abating, and that, with better teachers, better methods and better schools, it will continue to decrease till the minimum is practically reached, without the intervention of law. For in no preceding ten years of our common-school history has the progress in the science and methods of teaching, and in whatsoever makes schools inviting and effective, been so marked and rapid.

No, we are not “doing well enough,” as some affirm and try to believe. We must do a great deal better, and make haste about it, too. With the best school systems, and the best schools, in the world, as I verily believe—certainly the best *for us*—yet lack we this one thing. And while we palter about infractions of personal liberty, and refuse to invoke the only arm that has power to save, the waves of ignorance, vice and crime are rising higher and higher, and, unless we do this thing, the years can almost be counted when, without a miracle, the Republic must go down into the furrows of the sea.

Summing up, then, I appeal to this national congress of teachers and educators to say to the people of the United States that the time has come to demand the interposition of law to stay these rising tides of ignorance and vice, by securing to all children, against every adverse claim and power, their absolute and inalienable right to the benefits and blessings of education.

I believe, with Mr. NORTHROP, that “to bring up children in ignorance is a *crime*, and should be treated as such”; that, “as the most prolific source of criminality, it should be under the ban of legal condemnation, and the restraint of legal punishment.”

I think it has been shown that the intervention of the law-making power

would be no abuse of the prerogatives of a republican government, legislatures themselves being but the exponents and agents of the moral convictions and will of the people; and that such intervention is necessary and expedient. It is not inconsistent with reasonable liberty of conscience; it is no improper limitation of parental authority, since it merely enforces the performance of parental duty, and "the enforcement of duties is no invasion of rights"; it places the right of the child to be educated above the right of the parent to keep it in ignorance; it protects the great majority, who *do* educate their children, against the counteracting influence of the minority, who will not; it shelters the innocent from cruel wrong, for dwarfing and "starving the soul is worse than abusing the body"; it boldly proclaims that if it is right to tax all for the education of all, it is equally right to see that all are educated; it is in the line of "a general human right, and of a fundamental right of children, and is compulsory only as this right must be protected against any and all infringements"; it is required to utilize the vast resources already devoted to public education, and to prevent enormous and increasing waste of money and effort; it is demanded by the clearest principles of justice, by considerations of the highest political wisdom, and by the exigencies that exist to-day, in every commonwealth of the Republic.

I again ask this parliament of teachers to give to these principles the weight of its approval; for in the words, uttered just thirty years ago, before the authorities of Boston, not far from the spot where we are now assembled, by that clarion-voiced apostle of common schools whose statue stands in yonder capitol square: "In the name of the living God it must be proclaimed, that licentiousness shall be the liberty; violence and chicanery shall be the law; superstition and craft shall be the religion; and the self-destructive indulgence of all sensual and unhallowed passions shall be the only happiness of that people who neglect the education of their children."

Mr. F. H. UNDERWOOD, of the School Committee of the City of Boston, invited the Association to meet the committee in a collation to be given in Faneuil Hall to-morrow evening.

Adjourned.

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### THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

#### MORNING SESSION.—THURSDAY, AUG. 8.

The Association was called to order by the President.

Prayer was offered by Rev. D. P. CROSBY, New Hampshire.

Lists of officers of the different departments for the ensuing year were reported, as follows:

##### DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

*President*—W. T. HARRIS, Missouri.

*Vice-President*—J. W. PAGE, Maryland.

*Secretary*—A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

*President*—N. A. CALKINS, New York.

*Vice-President*—Miss H. N. MORRIS, New York.

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*Secretary*—W. D. HENKLE, Ohio.

Letters were read from Hon. J. D. PHILBRICK, Superintendent of Schools, Boston, and J. W. BULKLEY, Superintendent of Schools, Brooklyn, N. Y., expressing regret at not being able to be with the Association at this time.

A paper on the "Examination of Teachers" was read by Hon. JOHN SWETT, Assistant-Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, Cal., as follows:

THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

It may be reasonably expected, when a man accepts an invitation to prepare a paper for this Association, and travels three thousand miles to read it, that he will condense his thoughts in the best possible manner, into the fewest possible words.

I am not in the habit of making excuses, but the circumstances under which I appear here to-day require a few words of explanation.

During the last of June, just as I was beginning to turn my thoughts to the subject assigned me by President WHITE, my youngest boy was taken suddenly and dangerously ill. For a long and weary month, every hour of the day that I could spare from the pressure of official duties, consequent upon the annual examination of schools at the end of the school year, and every hour that I could snatch from sleep, was passed in watching over him. For thirty days and thirty nights of alternating hope and despair, as the disease ebbed and flowed, I saw the little life, so dear to us, drifting slowly and helplessly away into the unknown future; and now a little grave in Lone Mountain Cemetery has consecrated the soil of my adopted state to me forevermore.

Two days before I left home, prostrated both physically and mentally, I felt that I must take, as a sad necessity, the trip to which I had looked forward with so many pleasant expectations. My noble-hearted wife, herself sick and broken-hearted, said: "Go, rather than break your appointment." If, in the shadow of a great grief, I fail to do justice to my subject, I venture to hope that your sympathy may veil the eyes of criticism.

On the long overland journey I jotted down a few rough outlines of my subject, without making an attempt to prepare an elaborate paper. The subject is one that I have had to deal with practically for many years, and one on which I entertain some very definite notions.

There are no flowers on the alkaline plains of the great plateau through which the railroad winds, like a huge black serpent, writhing under the scorching sun, in the hot sands of the barren desert, and any attempt of mine at rhetoric degenerated at once into the driest statements, made up of disjointed sentences, that break off as abruptly as a train fetches up at a way station. Should there be any thing caustic in my remarks, it may be attributed to alkaline dust; and if I fail to decipher my manuscript, you will bear in mind that it seemed to me, this morning when I run it over, as if it must have been struck by lightning in the terrible thunderstorm we experienced in the valley of the Platte.

By way of introducing my subject, and for the purpose of showing why I entertain radical views on the common methods of examining teachers and of granting them certificates, I am constrained to offer my own experience as an illustration.

Twenty years ago this very month, moved by the migratory instinct that seems to be hereditary in so many Yankee boys, impelling them to take flight in search of warmer climes and richer feeding-grounds, I sailed out of Boston harbor bound for California, "round the Horn."

My pocket-book was not plethoric with money, but carefully stowed away in its ample folds there were three certificates, every one of which bore the most positive evidence as to my good moral character, and certified to my "ability and fitness to teach a common school for the term of one year." One of these, like its holder, had its birth in the Old Granite State.

It bore the signature of a "*Destrict School Trustee*," dear old Deacon BROWN, who examined me in the vowel sounds, the consonant sounds, asked me to pronounce correctly *g-e-w-g-a-u*, and, by way of a clincher, required me to define the four parts of English Grammar according to LINDLEY MURRAY, *to wit*:—Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

The two other certificates were dated in the town of *Timbuctoo*, in the old Bay State, almost in the shadow of Bunker Hill. I was examined in the dingy office of a cobwebbed old lawyer, who was quite as scientific in his style of doing things as was dear old Deacon BROWN.

It is enough to say that every one of these examinations was as great a farce as it would be for VINCENT COLLIER to examine an Apache Indian in Mental and Moral Philosophy and Theology, or rather, as great an absurdity as it would be for a green-grocer to examine JOHN STUART MILL in Political Economy.

I would not rake up old events that happened so near the cradle of the common-school system, except that on returning, nearly a quarter of a century later, I find that good old way of examining teachers still going on in my native state, and in some other states that I do not now care to mention.

I find that the largest city in New England, famed for the excellence of her schools, has no system of professional examinations for teachers, that in Utopia the fitness of a man to teach is found out by "intuitive perception," and that men and women who want to teach get their places, not by rank in competitive examinations, but, like office-hunting politicians, by "letters of recommendation," by influential relatives, or by austere manners, or by the eminent respectability of dress.

When I reached California, I mined until I found myself dead-broke:

worked as a day-laborer on a ranch; sought in vain for permanent employment, save only the profession of blacking boots; and, at the end of a year, looked sadly at my certificates, and, as a last desperate resort, "looked round" for a school.

I heard of a school, but my old certificates were not current in California, and the flattering letters of Prof. RUSSELL, who taught me how to teach, availed me nothing. I had to be "examined" before I could be patented to be "fit to teach a common school in the State of California, for one year," and a miserable little school of half-Spanish children at that.

The school trustee, a Yankee minister, a man of huge body and enormous pomposity, did his duty with an awful dignity which no body but a little-minded man, in a petty little office, can ever aspire to. It was the same old rigmorole of "readin', 'ritin' and 'rithentic," with never a question to test education, culture, or power to teach.

After a half-day's examination, he gave *me* a certificate, and the school to some body else.

Then I went to San Francisco. There was a vacancy in the school department. The old examination-mill was still kept running under Yankee management. Fifteen of us, all in a row, like good little boys in school, were questioned "once round" in Arithmetic, "once round" in Grammar, "once round" in Geography, "once round" in Spelling, by the Superintendent and the Mayor,—the former a Vermont Yankee, and the latter like unto him, except he hailed from a city nigh unto Boston, where they gibbeted witches in stead of teachers.

I was told I ranked first of the batch; and of course some body else, who had "influence with the board," got the place. The successful some body this time was a young doctor without patients. Pretty soon the big boys "thrashed" the doctor, and I was allowed the privilege, at \$125 a month, of conquering a peace by subduing the young Hoodlums, or of meeting the fate of my predecessor.

This was how I became a schoolmaster, and how I won my way into the noblest profession—I think that is what they call it some times in educational conventions.

For eight successive years I taught the same school, and—I am ashamed to own it, and would not tell it were it not necessary to illustrate what I intend to present,—I had the cowardice, like other teachers with me, to submit to eight annual examinations, in order to determine my fitness, at each annual revolution of the sun, to teach the same school each succeeding school year.

Nor was this the end of humiliation and insult. After getting a "bran new" certificate at the end of each year, before I could go on again, I had to be elected by the votes of twelve members of the Board of Education, because my term of office lasted only one year.

During all those memorable years, the talent that I displayed in "electioneering" would have raised me to eminence as a New-York ward politician, had the same amount of anxiety and hard work been turned in that direction.

This annual election system was handed down to us from the primitive New-England "town-meetings." I believe that here in Boston, and in all New-England cities and villages, and, in fact, in most parts of the United States, it

is still kept up. A teacher holds the office only one year, and then he is at the mercy of any school director, or local member of the board, who may have some spite to wreak, or some relative to put in. Much as I honor the occupation of teaching, I am not in love with a system that tends to take all the manliness out of a man, and all the independence from a woman.

Under such a barbarous system of office-holding, rather than have a son of mine become a common-school teacher, I would apprentice him to the trade of a tanner, a tailor, or a shoemaker. He might then stand some possible chance of rising in the political world. For myself, rather than teach under it, I would contest with Nasby the postmastership of the Confederate Cross-Roads.

At length, dragged out of my bed, after a typhoid fever that brought me to the verge of the grave—a sickness brought on by over-work, worry and anxiety,—in order to be run through the examination-mill a *ninth* time, the hereditary blood of my grandfather, who “fit” in the Revolution, rose up in rebellion. I vowed to break up and root out the annual-examination farce, and the New-England-town-meeting-annual-election humbug, both of which had followed me across the continent like the ghost of some grim old Puritan, sticking closer than the accent of Yankee-land in my mother tongue.

So I left the school-room, went into political conventions, secured a nomination for the only office ever open to a schoolmaster, that of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, stumped the state, won two successive elections, and the third time, with my whole party, won a defeat; framed a school-law; established free schools; lobbied legislatures; secured a legal recognition of professional teachers; abolished the New-England annual-examination farce, and, in San Francisco, broke up the annual rotation-in-office election system; placed the examination of teachers throughout the state exclusively in the hands of experienced teachers, thereby ruining the occupation and the glory of many a learned committee-man; secured life diplomas for experienced and capable teachers; gained a legal recognition of the normal-school diplomas of all state normal schools in the United States; and, by law, made valid in California the life diplomas and state certificates granted to teachers by other states.

All these reforms cost me years of hard work and determined effort, and you will understand why I entertain strong convictions on the subject of Teachers’ Certificates.

For nearly twenty years, on the western verge of the continent, I have been engaged in a kind of border warfare in education. My educational notions have changed since I taught school near Boston. Living in a state whose people have been gleaned from every other state in the Union, from France, Germany, Italy, England, Ireland, Australia, and China, new conditions have made new questions to be decided, and new issues to be met.

While I fully recognize all that is good in New-England schools, school laws, school customs and usages, I take satisfaction for past suffering, in hurling a few brick-bats into the windows of the old school-house where I was flogged.

I have no desire to ruffle the plumes of the educational Brahmins of Boston, but backwoods-men fall into a rough way—to use the Yankee vernacular—of “speakin’ right out in meetin’.” If Boston Puritans imagine Europe to be an outlying attachment of the Hub, the Occidental Cosmopolitans, with equal sublimity of self-assurance, are certain that China, Japan and the Indies are

remote provinces of San Francisco. Some of our Pacific people claim that the east winds of Boston are not so raw as those of San Francisco.

There are people near the Golden Gate who are quite as confident that "our schools are the finest in the world, sir," as are the lineal descendants of the first Boston master of a grammar school. There are, possibly, a few intermediate points between the two "marks of admiration," as, for instance, St. Louis, Chicago, Cincinnati, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, where persons can be found laboring under the same pleasing provincial self-delusion.

Before touching on the subject of professional certificates, the two weak points of our public school system must be taken into account.

1. Of the three hundred thousand persons that "keep school" in our country, not more than one-tenth can be regarded as professional teachers, that is, teachers trained to their business, and intending to pursue it for a term of years. From the various normal schools altogether, there are graduated, annually, not more than two thousand at a very liberal estimate, and of these at least one-half drop out of the occupation in five years.

Most of our schools *outside* of our large cities, and many of the lower classes *within* our cities, are "kept," not taught, by unskilled and untrained labor, at the wages of unskilled labor. The pay of these unskilled "school-keepers" is less than that of any class of artisans or mechanics in any occupation that requires a trained apprenticeship.

These "school-keepers" are quite as good as the people deserve, and in most cases better than they ought to get for the wages paid. Until the people recognize the necessity of schools all the year round, until they realize that teaching is an art, until they are willing to pay for skilled training, in stead of mere "school-keeping," the broken summer and winter schools, kept by young girls waiting to get married, and by boys working their way through college, or into other occupations and professions, or by migratory ICHABOD CRANES, must serve the purpose of keeping the children out of utter barbarism, by giving them a chance to learn to read and write, and reckon dollars and cents.

The abstract theory of our school system is fine enough, but the census statistics loom up in fearful significance as a dark background. We shall learn before long that mere reading and writing do not constitute education, and that schoolmasters and schoolma'ams are not necessarily teachers.

It is a quarter of a century since I went to school in my native village. I return and find the school there is no better than when I was a school-boy. That village school is a fair type of many schools all over our country. It will not do to pick out a few cities, and shut our eyes to the rural districts.

When I went to school, we boys had neither training nor culture. We learned to read and write and cipher, and memorized text-books, but we were not *educated*; and hundreds of thousands of boys and girls, all over our country, are doing the same thing at the present time.

It matters but little how the temporary keepers of schools of this type are examined. Still, there ought to be a plan devised by which the untutored, untrained and unskilled "school-keeper" shall not be placed on the same footing and paid the same wages as the accomplished graduate of a normal school, or the self-made teacher, trained in actual work in the school-room.

Schools of this class were well enough in the ruder years of the republic,



when men and women were subduing the wilderness, driving out the savages, and laying the rough foundations of a great nation. But the time is now rapidly coming when, in consequence of a denser population, the struggle for existence will become fiercer, when there will no longer be millions of acres of fertile land to be taken up at nominal prices and made productive by unskilled labor. The time is coming when our artisans and mechanics must be trained to compete with those from the technical and industrial schools of European countries.

Our schools in the small villages and farming districts must be reorganized to meet this new order of things, and the people must employ skilled teachers, and pay them the wages of skilled labor.

2. The other radical defect in the practical working of our school system is the short terms of school officers and superintendents, and their election by direct vote of the people in general elections.

Annual elections suited the genius of New-England towns when the government was the purest type of a democracy, and when the machinery of great political parties was unknown; but applied to great cities, to states, and to the broader expanse of the West, the short term of office and the annual election have been ruinous in their results, not only in educational offices, but in all others.

There can be no steady progress in public schools without long-continued, systematic efforts; and there can be no *system* when one set of school officials succeeds another as often as the seasons change. By the time one set of school officers has learned something about the condition and wants of the schools, by some change in the politics of the city or town, a new set succeeds, bent on reforming the work of their predecessors.

In many parts of our country, already, school boards elected by one political party feel under no obligation to retain in place the teachers appointed by the opposite party, and the outrageous annual-election farce, which cowardly teachers have so long submitted to without a struggle, affords a fine opportunity to drop out the old ones and run in the new.

Gradually, but surely, the schools are coming to be considered as legitimate party spoils of the victors, and the struggle for positions on boards of education in all our great cities is mainly to control the patronage of appointments. There has been a great deal of talk about reform in civil-service appointments, but the country stands in greater need of reform in the manner of making educational appointments. There is more favoritism, more of politics and church, mixed up in the annual appointments of the 300,000 teachers in the country than in all the custom-houses; and there is more ignorance and unfitness for position than in all the post-offices and civil-service places taken together.

I make no random assertions. I speak from a thorough personal knowledge of our state, and teachers and educators from other states affirm the same condition of things with them. It is undoubtedly worse in the newer states than in the older, and worse in the states evenly balanced, and subject to frequent political changes, than in the one-sided states always controlled by the same political party. Right here in Boston, the centre of conservatism, there is little change, because for twenty-five years there has been no change in the politi-

cal character of the board of education. But, each succeeding year, every one of the thousand teachers here feels that it is possible for one single enemy on the board to secure, by persistent misrepresentation, and by trading votes, the removal of any teacher. Occasionally, even in Utopia, it happens that a teacher is "left out," and consequently no teacher can act or can think independently; and it is even whispered that it makes a material difference with a man's chances whether he be a believer in Cotton Mather or in Darwin.

If the Boston Brahmins like this condition of petty servitude to school directors, I am perfectly willing they shall fold their arms with all due meekness and gratitude, leaving the work of reformation to outside barbarians. They get better salaries than we do out west, and consequently are conservative.

Until there is a reform in these defective points of our school system, it seems to me there can be no marked and permanent improvement in our public schools as a whole. There will be individual schools that, under superior teachers, will attain a high degree of excellence; but the general average of the schools can not be raised much higher than it is, because the system neither encourages independent thought nor tolerates progress.

Puttering in conventions over the little details of teaching arithmetic, grammar and geography will avail nothing. Men are wanted to shape legislation, to dig out the *debris*, and with strong and rough hands to lay the superstructure of a better system of American school supervision and school teaching.

There are some men and women engaged in public school service who make teaching a life-work, who understand their business and who are earnestly devoted to their work, and the rights and privileges of this class demand a careful consideration. There are only a few states that have any system of professional examinations by which a public school teacher can secure a professional life diploma, and thereafter be exempted from the humiliation of periodic examinations by petty school officials, just emerging from babyhood of official ignorance of the whole subject of education.

And even if a life certificate can be secured in a few states, such as Illinois, Ohio, Iowa, or California, it is of no legal value outside of the particular state in which it is granted. California is the only state that recognizes by law the state diplomas and certificates of other states by placing them on an equal footing with her own. Were I, after twenty years of continuous educational service as a teacher, as state superintendent, and as deputy city superintendent of San Francisco, holding in my possession dozens of defunct certificates and a life diploma of the State of California, were I to go back to my native town and seek employment in my native state by teaching the little "Deestrick School" that I went to when a barefoot boy, I should have to "pass examination" to determine my fitness to teach a little squad of boys and girls to read and write. The school law of New Hampshire not only fails to recognize the educational diplomas of mushroom states like California, but, with true Puritan stubbornness, neglects to provide her own sons, who pick up enough education to become teachers, with any kind of a state document which they can carry with them to the state where they go to earn a living.

It would be the same were I to go "looking out for a school" in Maine, or Vermont, or Massachusetts, or Rhode Island, or Connecticut, or in any state in the Union except my own adopted state.

Were my esteemed personal friend Mr. PHILBRICK, the Superintendent of the Public Schools of Boston, crowned with the well-earned honors of twenty-five years of educational labor, to lose his position at the next annual election, and in consequence, were to emigrate to California to teach school to earn a living, he would have to pass a rigid written examination before he could draw a dollar of the school fund for teaching the smallest school, in the roughest mining camp in the state. Massachusetts has provided no means of giving her educational veterans a certificate of public-school service.

No state in the Union, except California, recognizes by law the normal school diplomas of other states. In fact, many of the states fail to recognize by law the diplomas given to the graduates of their own normal schools.

An illustration in point. A week before I left home, a young lady came into my office in San Francisco, in search of employment as a teacher. She was a stranger in our state, just arrived from Illinois. She had just graduated from the Illinois State Normal School. I presented her diploma to the State Board of Examination, of which I happen to be a member: a state diploma was at once issued to her, as the law requires, and in a week I secured her a good school in one of the pleasantest towns in California. In any other state she would have been bothered and badgered with needless examinations.

There ought to be, in every state, a State Board of Examination, made up exclusively of professional teachers, including the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, having power to issue life diplomas to experienced teachers of the highest rank, and certificates of lower grades to younger teachers of lower rank, these diplomas and certificates to be issued only upon actual examination in writing, and the record of examination to be indorsed upon the certificates. There ought, also, to be a system of broad and liberal legislation in all the states, by means of which a professional teacher holding a diploma or certificate in one state should be guaranteed a legal recognition in all the other states.

It is true that this need is felt more in the newer Western and Pacific States than in the older ones. For instance, in California, our teachers are drawn from every other state in the Union. These teachers must pass a written examination in our state before they can engage in teaching. This requisition often keeps them waiting for several months after their arrival. Occasionally a teacher comes bringing a state certificate or a normal-school diploma, which is at once recognized under our liberal school law.

But most of the states have failed to provide for any system of state certificates by means of which their teachers can carry with them when they emigrate any written evidence of professional fitness.

If the older states do not feel the local need of some provision of this kind; they owe a duty to their educated sons and daughters, who seek a wider field of action in the newer states. They owe a duty to the cause of National American Education.

In addition to a state system of examination as a means of protecting the public schools against charlatans, ignoramuses and humbugs generally, it is indispensable that every state have an efficient system of city, county and township boards of examination.

These boards ought to be made up of each city, county or town superintendent,

together with from three to five professional teachers, themselves holders of high-grade certificates. They should have power to issue, on actual written examinations, certificates of different grades, valid for periods of time ranging from two to ten years, according to grade.

These boards ought to be paid a reasonable sum for their work, otherwise it will not be well done. They ought to be made up exclusively of practical teachers, for the same reason that only lawyers can legally examine law students applying for admission to the bar, that only physicians examine medical students, and that only clergymen pass on the fitness of theological students to enter the ministry. By combining a system of state, city, county and town examinations, together with inter-state legislation, something might be done to raise the standard of public school teaching.

It is a matter of surprise that so little has already been done in this direction. It can only be accounted for by the fact that nine-tenths of the men and women engaged in keeping school are intending and expecting to get out of the business as soon as they can. Otherwise, they would never submit to the humiliation of successive examinations by petty officials, who often know little or nothing about education, but who delight in a brief official importance.

It is urged against this plan of competitive, professional examinations in writing, that "percentages" represent mere scholarship, and fail to gauge the power to discipline, the tact to manage, and the skill to teach.

This may be true to some extent, but it is also certain that, while some good scholars may *fail* when submitted to the final test of the school-room, no ignorant person can possibly make a good teacher under any circumstances. There is a grade of scholarship below which no man or woman is fitted to make a trial of teaching. Above this standard, some will succeed and some will fail. So it is with graduates of the law schools, the divinity schools, and the medical schools.

It may be urged that boards of examination will show favoritism in issuing certificates to friends. So they will, unless the people elect incorruptible school officers, and appoint incorruptible teachers. The best laws ever framed, and the best systems ever devised, are never binding on corrupt or incapable executive officers.

It may be urged that the diploma of a college ought to be taken as a valid certificate of fitness to teach. Now a college-bred young man *may* or *may not* be qualified to teach. I have known many young men coming to California, with flying colors and fresh diplomas, who ignominiously failed to secure a certificate to teach even the lowest grade country school, on an examination in Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History, Reading and Spelling, so elementary in its character, that to a pupil of average attainment in the second grade of an ordinary grammar school it would have been mere play. They not only showed no "fitness to teach," but they exhibited a most lamentable ignorance of the very elements required to be taught in every common school. They might have been brilliant in the dead languages, but they misspelled their mother tongue, they murdered English, and they could n't cipher. There can be no safe and sure test except actual examination.

I do not deny that the hobby of written examinations may be ridden to death. It has been wickedly said by some body—doubtless some luckless ex-

aminee—that the leading object of many examinations is to give the examiners a chance to show off their own attainments. I have seen many sets of questions that seemed to be fossil curiosities, picked up during a life-long search after abnormal things:—"tough sums" in Arithmetic and Algebra, the product of some mathematician run to seed; gleanings of the tag ends of the countless rules, and notes and exceptions, and annotations, and explanations and illustrations and idioms of LINDLEY MURRAY—that great grammarian who wrote bad English, and made sad the hearts of unnumbered generations of school boys and school girls: twisted and elliptical sentences to parse according to SMITH, or BROWN, or GREENE, or WELLS, or WELD, or SANBORN, or KERL, or HART, or CLARK, or QUACKENBOS, or BULLIONS, or PINNEO, or NOKES or STOKES, or NILES or STILES, or THOMPSON or PICKWICK,—unheard-of words of crooked orthography, the gnarled growth of centuries of changes in the English tongue, strung together like onions, in a way that would have brought tears to the eyes of old WEBSTER himself, that dear old philological bush-ranger, who fought orthography on his own hook, in defiance of all usage, and of all laws of linguistic warfare; questions in Geography on zig-zag boundaries, on the length of all the rivers of all the world, from the Amazon down to the trout-brooks that we fished in when boys, on the distance of the classic towns of "You Bet" and "Red Dog" in California from Nijni Novgorod and the sources of the Nile; on the direction of Brandy Gulch and Whisky Cañon from Ujiji and Petropaulovski; questions in History requiring the year and the day of the month of the settlement of every state of the Union, supplemented by senseless interrogatories on historical myths known only in our school text-books; impracticable questions on Theory and Practice of Teaching, about what ought to be done under impossible conditions; questions about elements of Penmanship that even such accomplished penmen as GREELEY, or CHOATE, or NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, could n't answer; questions on Sanskrit roots no Brahmin ever heard of; questions on the Constitution that would have flooded the "Great Expounder"; questions on Physiology that would puzzle DARWIN; questions on Natural Philosophy at which HUXLEY or TYNDALL would be dumb; questions which showed the examiner to be "stick, stark, staring mad," and which no sane man could answer. But a practical system of examinations presupposes a common-sense style of conducting them.

In conclusion, I submit the following propositions for the consideration of teachers and educators and legislators.

1. A comprehensive system of state, city, county and town boards of examination.
2. Boards of examination to be made up of state, city, county or town superintendents, together with a limited number of professional teachers, appointed in the manner best suited to the school systems of the different states.
3. A graded series of teachers' certificates, from life diplomas down to temporary certificates, valid for one year, granted on actual examination only.
4. Examinations to be conducted in writing, and the percentages obtained in each study to be indorsed on the certificates.
5. A legal recognition by each state of the professional certificates issued in other states.

6. A provision for the legal recognition, by boards of examination in each state, of the normal-school diplomas issued by the normal schools of other states and other countries.

7. A determined and combined effort to shape legislation so as to secure longer terms of office to state, city, county and town superintendents, to members of boards of education and to school trustees, thereby securing some degree of uniform progress in educational management.

8. A war of independence, to be waged against the outrageous system of the annual election of teachers, a plan which reduces them below the level of the holder of the smallest post-office in the gift of a victorious political party.

In closing, I can not forbear expressing my delight at meeting so many veterans in the cause of public-school education, men whose honored names have been familiar to me during so many years of picket duty on the verge of the Pacific.

On the long journey across the continent, the material prosperity of the country so overwhelmed me that an educational convention seemed of little consequence, compared with the mighty physical energies of the country, seen in the long lines of railroads, the great cities, and the productive farms of the valley of the Mississippi: but now, when from this quiet school-room I reverse the glass, and look back across our country, so vast in extent and so rich in material prosperity, and when I consider that educated minds have transformed the whole land from the primitive wilderness into the beautiful homes of a happy people, when I think of the unseen power that moves this mighty mass of matter, when I remember that the steam engine which whirled me three thousand miles in a week's time was once only a dim notion in the mind of a thinker, that the telegraph wires—those nerves of the whole land, that radiate from the brain-centres of civilization, culture, art and science—were created by the cultivated mind of a thinking inventor, I realize that there is an unseen power, mightier than steam or electricity, and that the public schools are the great batteries that evolve this controlling force in civilization,—I magnify the importance of this convention.

You that have not lived for twenty years away from the homes where you were born can not realize how deeply the wondrous beauty of the New-England summer-time impresses a wanderer, returned from the Pacific coast, where every thing is a contrast to the face of Nature on the Atlantic Slope.

On the other side I felt a thoroughbred Californian, but now, among the scenes of my early days, I begin to feel like a full-blooded Yankee.

Every tree, every flower, every leaf, every dew-drop, starts to life some long-buried memory: the green grass, the changing cloud-pictures, the rich foliage, sunrise and sunset, flood my heart with tender recollections, until I feel like throwing myself down in the shade of a great tree and crying like a school-boy.

There is a minor key of sadness like the sighing of the wind in the grand old pine forests of my native hills. The boys I played with are scattered and gone, and I am a stranger in the home of my boyhood. Some are sleeping in the village church-yard, the graves of some are in the gold cañons of California, beautiful faces, once dear to me, have vanished for ever, so that I often find

my eyes filling with tears, until, in the fullness of my heart, there remains only the sweet hope that

"—— In the hereafter angels may  
Roll the stone from its grave away!"

#### DISCUSSION.

*Prof. S. S. Greene*, of Rhode Island, said the gentleman who had read the paper was not so much a stranger in New England as he would have us suppose. He was well known, and his progress and work in California were well known. But he rose, he said, more particularly to state what has been done in this matter in the schools of Providence. Once in a year, or about that time, candidates are examined by a board of nine persons, selected with reference to their capacity to examine teachers. There are cards enough provided for all the candidates, who are not known by name to the examiners, but go by number during the examination. The process of examination was then detailed, which is by writing, and notes are made in reference to the degree of attainment, marked upon a scale. The names are then called for, and a list of those approved is made out, from whom teachers may be selected by the superintendent to teach for a year. This system had been found eminently just and fair, and secured good teachers.

*Hon. B. G. Northrop* said he indorsed heartily the spirit and recommendations of the admirable paper read; but he thought there was one statement that was unjust to New England. Speaking for Massachusetts and Connecticut, he could assert positively that partisan influence was not felt in the selection of teachers. In the City of New Haven, though largely democratic, they had for years chosen a republican as superintendent of schools. The same principle prevails generally in New England.

*Merrick Lyon, Esq.*, of Rhode Island, thought there should be a state board of examiners who could issue certificates that would entitle a person to teach in any part of the state. Any board may have favorites, and no examination may be entirely impartial, as human nature is not perfect. He thought annual appointments good to meet the case of teachers who are not satisfactory to the board, as they can then be dropped.

*Mr. Abernethy*, of Iowa, said their experience in that state would modify the sentiments expressed in the paper. We require as a standard of qualifications: first, good moral character; second, thorough acquaintance with the branches taught; third, aptness to teach; fourth, ability to govern. I agree with the gentleman as to the second of these points, that a written examination is the best by far to ascertain the knowledge that the candidate has of the branches to be taught. That has been adopted by us very generally. But we are led to believe that equal, and perhaps greater stress, should be given to the moral character of the teacher; and we believe that can not be ascertained by any written examination. Ability to govern and aptness to teach must be determined by an examination of the school during its session. We give certificates of three grades, first, second, and third; and rarely give a professional certificate until we have seen the teacher at work in the school-room. We therefore combine oral with written examinations. We are taking measures to have the questions

uniform throughout the state. Our examinations are conducted by county superintendents, to whom we aim to give constant employment in school work. While we have not secured the results that we desire, yet our system is in a measure satisfactory.

*John Hancock, Esq.*, of Ohio, thought that thorough examination of teachers was the essential element of every good school system. On a good board of examiners, therefore, more depends than on almost any other instrumentality in a school system. I do not agree that this matter should be left to open competition, and that every one may teach who can secure pupils. The people can not afford to have experiments made upon them and their children by a mere tyro, one who knows nothing of the science of education, or of it as an art. It is generally acknowledged that if the pupil is taught well in the lower grades there will be little difficulty in the upper; and we can not afford to have teachers who are deficient in the lower grades. A majority, at least, of every board of examiners should be composed of practical teachers, who have had large experience in teaching.

*Mr. Stephens*, of West Virginia, agreed as to the necessity of professional examinations. No teacher can respect his profession who is obliged to be examined by a board of examiners composed of members of other professions, however learned they may be. Education is new in West Virginia. We have county superintendents, who must be professional teachers. I wish to ask *Prof. GREENE* whether the teachers in Providence are obliged to be reexamined.

*Prof. Greene*. Our plan is to examine the candidates, who, if approved, are put on a list called the approved list, and the superintendent may make his selection from this list. There is no reexamination, but the teacher is reelected every year.

*Prof. Chadbourne*, of Williams College. I shall speak in regard to written and oral examinations. I agree that a written examination is the best means of learning how much a person knows; but I would give more for one minute in an oral examination to satisfy me as to the ability of a person to handle a class than I would for any written examination. [Applause.] Therefore I say combine the two. I have said I never will vote for a man for a teacher on any written examination or certificate until I have seen him. I have appointed men who had half a bushel of certificates, but they were nothing but sticks, not fit to be in the place. A written examination is not enough.

*Judah Dana, Esq.*, thought the first qualification of a teacher was ability to control; second, positive knowledge, and ability to explain this to others. I would give more to go into a school five minutes to see how the teacher manages than to have any formal examination, however conducted.

*The President*. I am glad to see in these discussions the growing importance of recognizing the professional qualifications of teachers. The idea of examining and giving certificates of qualification simply on a knowledge of the branches seems to be giving way, as the ground is too narrow. Allow me to suggest that, in the farther discussion of the subject, gentlemen give us some of their experience in respect to life certificates, if any one has such experience.



*Mr. A. Bronson Alcott* thought temperament goes farther toward giving the qualification of a teacher than any thing else. There are certain men, and more women, who have the highest qualification for a teacher, and that is magnetism, a magnetic temperament. Such a person may possess more or less information, but the knowledge possessed will be the least part of the qualification to teach. It is the power of influencing by looks, manner, or even by silence; the whole attitude and spirit of the teacher in the school. Books are very well, but books are the least part of the qualification. How will you impart what you know? is the question most important; and how will you impart what you know unless you have the imparting temperament? How many men and women there are who will demonize you by their every word and attitude, and the more they make the attempt to reach you the farther you are from them. Good people, unfortunate people, but not made for teachers. Whoever can draw out what is in us, and make us feel that we know something, is the best teacher.

*Mr. Youngs*, of New York, said he wished to call attention to the necessity of educating public sentiment in regard to teaching as a profession in this country. Those who are professional teachers must accomplish this work, and each one as he goes back to his work should begin in this direction. It lies with the teachers themselves whether they shall be recognized as a body of professional men and women or not.

*Mr. Abernethy* said they have a board of state examiners in Iowa, who meet annually, the first week in July, and they give state certificates, good in any part of the state, in any school.

*Mr. Hancock* said the examinations in Ohio are partly written and partly oral.

*Hon. J. P. Wickersham* said any teacher properly qualified could come before the State Board of Pennsylvania and obtain a life certificate.

*Mr. Estabrook*, of Michigan, said all graduates of the State Normal School have a life certificate in that state, and a diploma from the State Superintendent.

The subject was referred to a committee consisting of *Hon. JOHN SWETT*, *Hon. J. L. PICKARD*, Illinois, and *Hon. JOSEPH WHITE*, Massachusetts, to report at the next meeting of the Association.

*W. E. Crosby*, Superintendent of Schools, Davenport, Iowa, introduced the following resolution, which was referred to the last-named committee:

*Resolved*, That this Association give its influence to the securing of a common recognition throughout the Union of normal-school diplomas and state certificates as evidences of qualification actually possessed by higher classes of teachers, principals, and superintendents, city, county and state—provided that an equal and impartial basis of training and scholarship can be generally adopted.

The following paper was read by *WALTER SMITH*, State Director of Art Education, Boston, Mass., on

**DRAWING, IN GRADED PUBLIC SCHOOLS: WHAT TO TEACH,  
AND HOW TO TEACH IT.**

IN a country like America, where education is generally regarded as a living question of the highest importance, it is not to be wondered at that conventions such as this should be continually assembling to criticise and discuss the old agencies and methods, and to learn something of the new. The opportunities afforded for this interchange of experience among educationists in the Teachers' Institutes, County and State Associations, and finally at national meetings such as this, must necessarily account for some of the many excellences which characterize the common-school education of America. In no other country are such meetings so frequent, or so well attended; and in very few do they exist at all.

A short time after coming to reside in this country, and after having attended some of the teachers' institutes annually held in Massachusetts (which were quite new to me, being utterly unknown in Great Britain), I wrote an account of these organizations, and their methods of operation, to one of the officials of the English Educational Department, who read and discussed my description with the head of his department; afterwards informing me that it was with the greatest interest they had heard of an agency so novel, and apparently, from my description, so efficient.

The only corresponding organization existing in England, and which has but recently been established, is for the benefit of teachers of art and science, who are annually invited from provincial towns and cities to a sort of teachers' institute in London,—lasting for about six weeks,—where the greatest men in science are employed by the government to deliver courses of lectures upon those subjects which are taught in the provincial science and art schools. In this case the teachers are brought to the professors; and such as attend all the lectures have their expenses paid by the government. This is a modern experiment, and very limited in its influence; not to be compared, I think, with that of a well-conducted plan of teachers' institutes as carried out in Massachusetts, where the professors go to the teachers.

A national organization for meeting and discussion, such as this, does not exist in England; though, from the additional interest now being felt in the educational subject there, this feature, as well as others, may possibly be annexed also to the national system.

The continual alterations which are made in the field of education, both in methods and subjects of instruction, are indications either of change or of progress, it is some times difficult to distinguish which; for growth and decay, development and corruption, are alike equally characterized by perpetual change.

Nevertheless, recent movements, both here and abroad, in the direction of comprehensiveness, can not but be regarded as improvements upon the narrow limits in which the education of the past has been confined; and with new conditions of society, and some of the ability which the world has at its command, it may yet be possible to devise schemes of education that shall have a definite and practical bearing upon each man's future occupation, without jeopardizing all men's necessities in the direction of general knowledge.

In an age when every man must pay his way, or die,—and it is impossible to compromise the matter by doing a little of both,—we can not speak or think of an ideal education; for that in practice would be advancing a small section of the race out of all proportion with the rest of mankind,—an experiment usually ending in evil times for both the van and the rear.

The actual functions of education are to prepare a human being to get along in this world without any reference to idealities, but with direct bearing upon his faculty at all times to pay a hundred cents to the dollar in discharge of his just obligations. And in addition to this commercial morality, and with a sensitiveness which indicates the longing for an ideal standard, it is some times thought advisable to throw into the educational caldron a flavor of self-denial which does not appear in the pages of the ledger, and a little taste, to give piquancy to the otherwise prosy railroad journey of life.

The first condition of having constructed or furnished the human machine with the ability to preserve a state of solvency having been complied with, just as the Indian selected his war-club of sound material, we seem to look for yet another characteristic, viz., fitting a man to be happy as well as solvent, by opening his eyes to the beautiful, and his mind and reasoning faculties to the true in nature, science, and art. More than half the difficulties which have beset the path of education in many countries have proceeded from the desire to magnify the importance of this latter element in education, only that the disagreement has usually come to an issue on the question of morals rather than science or art.

The tendency of modern education is to elevate the attainments of all, rather than to increase the knowledge of a few; and the great example which America has gloriously offered to the world is making education as free as the light and air of heaven to every human being who is born under her flag.

Neither ancient, mediæval nor modern times can show a greater spectacle than this,—that the deliberate wisdom of the free American people has decided, and carries out by its own free choice, the principle that society should guard and protect the young from the neglect and poverty of parents, and insure that every possible citizen of the future shall be qualified by education to discharge his or her duty to the state.

I can find no words in the English language which adequately express my admiration of this feature in American society; and, when the prejudices engendered by my own education in an ancient country some times rise up within me, I look out mentally to the school-houses, and then remember the neglected children of England and some other European countries, and all my dissatisfaction vanishes. In place of it comes the sensation that a people capable of performing so far-seeing and profound an act of justice to the weak and defenseless may be trusted in every social relationship; and from the flag-staff of national sentiment I haul down the union-jack, and as a teacher I run up the stars and stripes of my adopted nationality.

Patriotism is virtuous when one's country is in the right; it is mere clannishness when the country to which we owe allegiance is in the wrong: and the sentiment "My country, right or wrong," is not the cry of the man, but the howling of the patriotic slave.

Perhaps the most definite charge made against our systems of education in

modern times is that they are too purely intellectual from the first, and especially so in the lowest schools for children of tender years; that the living senses of the young, which are in a perpetual condition of inquiry, and are therefore the teacher's natural allies, have been very much ignored; whilst the yet incipient mental and reasoning faculties have been drawn upon out of all proportion to their strength, and with a bad effect upon their future development.

That there is some truth in this view seems to be becoming generally recognized; for in recent years the changes and alterations made in, and the additions made to, our educational schemes, have been in the opposite direction to that which we commonly recognize as the intellectual, and have had for their object the more perfect development of the understanding by appeals to the senses and their cultivation.

Thus the object-lessons which are now so popular, and deservedly so; the experimental diluted science which is rapidly entering the upper classes; the music and the elementary drawing which is now being introduced into all schools and classes,—all these are efforts to reach the individual through his senses. The success attending the Kindergarten system, and its exceedingly humane and gentle methods of instruction, form, perhaps, the most decisive evidence that, for the education of the very young, we want less of the burden of abstract formulæ, and more honest recognition of the senses. If we remember—what seems generally forgotten—that in the child the senses are developed as strongly as in the adult, whilst the reasoning faculties are yet but in the condition of instinct, it would seem to be reasonable that education should primarily appeal to those human faculties which will never be more perfectly developed, in order to secure both success in its results, and merciful treatment of the child.

I think that the remarkable success in practical life of many men of distinction and usefulness, to whom the dry education of the school-room with its rules and tables made no appeal, and who, given up as dunces, or securing their freedom as neglected children, sought and found a rough practical education in the fields or woods, among animals, or playing in workshops, proves that even following the natural inclination of the senses, without the advantage of guidance or instruction, is some times equivalent to a whole course of school-education.

The fact, also, that to learn something about every thing they see, whether in a garden, on the seashore, in the market-place, or in the shop-window, is a source of the greatest delight to children, proves to me that, from natural desire, they should find their greatest happiness in learning; and they do so when information is presented to them as they acquire it out of doors by themselves, or, by persistent questioning, worry their parents or companions out of it.

It is of some advantage to a teacher to have continually under his own eyes and observation a troop of children in various stages of physical and mental development; and if they happen to be his own, who in the natural course of things look up to him as the source of all knowledge, he will have an excellent opportunity of deciding that a child's motto is: "I want to know"; and its symbol, the note of interrogation.

We are told that the first important act of our first parents was a disobedient onslaught upon the tree of knowledge. From my own observations on juvenile

human nature, I should judge that this is perfectly true, even to the stealing of apples; for there is no one characteristic so inevitably transmitted to their descendants; or which shows itself so early: and any man who disbelieves in the existence of original sin had better try the experiment of bringing up a large family of his own close to an apple-orchard of his neighbors.

Assuming, then, that the young human creature has inherited designs upon the tree of knowledge, and that it is to the manifest interest of society that he should eat and become like one of us, knowing good from evil, the question arises as to what particular apples we should offer to him, so that he may choose the good and reject the evil, or, in another and more thoroughly nineteenth-century phrase, pay his way, and become a useful member of society.

The first care must be that he shall be taught such common principles of sense as will fit him to understand the common language which is used by the rest of the human race he is likely to come in contact with; then, that he shall understand the common arts of civilization, so that the craft of the majority may not lay him under too great a disadvantage; and lastly, as each human being is but like one single brick in the edifice of society, that he may recognize and discharge his responsibility wherever he may be placed, so that the whole structure may receive no weakness from him.

If it be true, as I have stated, that the natural condition of the child is one of inquiry, and that it feels happiness in finding out what to it appear as new facts, how comes it that school is not perfect happiness to all children?

Without attempting to explain or express my solitary opinion as to the cause of this, it may be that some one will feel as I do,—that the brain-work of children in public schools is always, from the first to the last, a little ahead of the brain-power, and that the mere dread of being imperfect, or behind its fellows, keeps the child in a condition of mental irritation; which, when continued, results in distaste to school and lessons.

That is especially hard upon the good-natured, stupid children, who do not develop early, and who are some times thus made to lose confidence in themselves; whilst it would appear to me the worst possible thing that could happen to smart children with large brains, who would be better held back than pushed forward, until their physical power can carry their brain-power.

The remedy would seem to be to dilute our high-pressure brain-work in the schools with a fair average amount of, say, low-pressure sensual work, so that now and then there might be a fallow of an hour or so in the studies, during which the child shall be taught nothing but what requires the use of its eyes, hands, ears and voice only, without employing its reason, memory, or intellect. A song would do this; and so would the reading of anecdotes of animals for little children, of historical scenes for the older ones, episodes in the lives of remarkable persons, or descriptions of natural curiosities; the teacher not being above the use of a little histrionic power in relating or reading to the class.

In the same way, drawing of objects might be used as a fallow,—not as an amusement, but as an exercise which will employ the eyes and the fingers without distressing the mental powers. This may, perhaps, seem a low motive for which to introduce the study of art, even in its lowest stages, into our public schools. But I look to music, drawing, natural-history lessons, elementary science, and object-lessons, to protect our children from over-education, and to

make them love their childish work: and, were there no other reason for the introduction of such subjects into our common schools than that, it seems to me that would be reason sufficient.

The new cry for industrial schools is but a phase of the belief that, before a child leaves school for work, it is possible to teach him something that will be of use in his working-life; and, in a country where apprenticeships can hardly be said to exist at all, the industrial school, either as a separate institution or by the introduction of industrial classes into common schools, becomes a practical necessity. *We want the schools extended in two directions—downwards into the Kindergarten, and upwards into the Polytechnic*; and the influence of these two additions will eventually be felt throughout the whole scheme of public education, until their name as representing any distinct methods will be no longer applicable.

Meanwhile, without waiting for any complete changes in or additions to our school-system, the elements of industrial art and science are being introduced into our schools, and among them the subject upon which I am to address you; viz., Drawing.

It is, perhaps, not without its advantages, that in this subject America has not been a pioneer. Experiments have been tried, and methods of art-education tested, by other nations as though it had been mainly to economize and save our time; crotchets have been indulged in, and delusions exploded, apparently to guard us from making mistakes.

Now that drawing is being taken up in earnest in this country, it is a matter of some consequence that we should begin right, and, rejecting those methods of teaching it which have failed elsewhere, adopt some rational system which is simple enough to be understood by all teachers, and by which all children may learn without difficulty.

It seems to me fair to proceed on the hypothesis that, whatever children may be expected to learn, teachers may be expected to learn and to teach. By practical experiments on large classes throughout entire schools and cities, it has been demonstrated that physical or mental incapacity is the only obstacle which prevents children from learning to draw; and the capacity of teachers both to learn drawing and to teach it has thus been proved beyond all question, being both physically and mentally capable.

To succeed in drawing requires the cultivation, in a particular direction, of the understanding and the taste, and development of manual skill.

In this process the adult has immense advantages over the child in that half of the faculty which is based on the understanding; and is at a disadvantage, comparatively, in all that depends upon manual dexterity, with the child. They are, therefore, equally capable of learning, so far as capacity goes; and with both it is a question of willingness and diligence whether they shall draw well or badly.

The matter of executive or manual skill need not trouble us much, unless we have arrived at such extreme old age that our senses are failing us, and our tendons are becoming bony. Our hands will no more refuse to express what the eye sees and the mind understands, than they will refuse to handle a knife and fork at dinner-time,—a catastrophe which does not frequently occur.

This is a mere question of training; and the hand will always train faster

than the mind. I some times hear this sort of statement from adults whom I am teaching: "I know and see exactly how it ought to be; but I can not do it." Now, we may take it for granted that any part of a drawing which depends on manual power will be equal to the knowledge displayed; and therefore a remark such as I have quoted is usually an unconscious misrepresentation of the facts.

For, to pursue the conversation, I shall say, "Your lines are good enough for all practical purposes; but why reverse their positions? The broadest part of this vase is near the top, and you have made it broadest at the bottom." The answer will probably be, "Why, so it is! now, I had not noticed that before." Which means that the poor hand had had nothing to do with the mistake. The eye had been accustomed to look, but not trained to see; and the understanding, which should have been leading the van, was far away in the rear; the general complaining that the battle was lost "because of the inefficiency of that confounded little drummer-boy."

The first thing to do in the teaching of drawing is so to arrange its exercises that they shall all be comparatively easy, and each be a preparation for the next. That brings us to the question of grading; what the children in each grade of school are able to do, and how it can be made a consistent part of a general plan, having definite objects to obtain, requiring nothing to be unlearned as the student progresses, and leaving nothing unlearned that may be necessary for his advancement.

I take it that the object of teaching drawing primarily is, that every person shall have accurate ideas on all matters involving a knowledge of form or color, and be able to express them by drawing the shapes of objects, or their tints, as readily as he can give their names, or distinguish one from another; secondly, that this power may be so generally acquired, that all trades, occupations, or professions, which, to succeed in, necessitate the ability to draw, shall be prepared for at school by every one, either to practice or to understand, just as learning to read and write prepares all of us for our elementary duties and callings, whatever they may be, so far as reading and writing are concerned; that we know enough of them to make all that depends upon them possible to us, if we are capable of attaining it.

There are three ways of looking at the subject of drawing,—1st, as a language; 2d, as an art; 3d, as a science.

In the primary and grammar schools, drawing is to be regarded as a language for the expression of form with accuracy; and its acquisition should be as much a matter of method or a matter of course as learning a written or spoken language, and by a very similar process.

Drawing has, for instance, its alphabet,—the straight line and the curve,—varieties and combinations of which compose the vowels and consonants of the language. Then, it has its grammar, which controls, or rather explains, the art of representation; true drawing being in art precisely the same thing as grammatical expression in language.

In the high schools, after a good foundation has been laid in the primary and grammar schools, the pupils may arrive at the practice of drawing as an art, in its most elementary stages; though it will be some time before sufficiently sys-

tematic training has been secured in the lower schools to make art-work possible in the high schools.

We may, therefore, consider that the educational aspect of the subject of drawing in the graded public schools is that of a language, the speech of the eye expressed by the hand; and the experience we have in teaching a language will not only indicate to us what to teach, but how to teach drawing.

If we wished to convey the idea of a square to another person, we must either pronounce the name, write the word, or draw the form.

In each case we use our senses as a medium of interpretation; the spoken name appealing through the ear and memory, the written word through the eye and memory, the drawing through the eye alone, direct to the understanding.

What is true of this symbol is true of all degrees of complexity in drawing, until we arrive at works of the imagination, so that the parallelism between drawing and language is direct enough to guide us in codifying the exercises of the former upon our experience in the latter.

This being recognized, every teacher becomes a possible teacher of drawing, and not only a possible one, but the best; for no one less systematically taught, or with less experience in the art of teaching, can teach drawing so well, whatever may be their own art-powers. Though this ought to be the case theoretically, I should hesitate to make such a statement, were it not for the fact that a long experience in the training of art-teachers has proved that theory and practice tell the same story; and the most accomplished of art-masters hitherto produced in England have been those who left the field of general education to devote themselves entirely to the special department of art-instruction. This will doubtless be the case also in America; and it both indicates the practical unity of the processes of education in all subjects, and should give to teachers the confidence in their own abilities to teach drawing which is necessary to their success.

It is requisite for the general introduction of drawing into the common schools that all teachers should become competent to teach drawing by practicing it themselves; and, as it is now becoming required in many states, it will be well to prepare for the duty. Special teachers of the subject, in any appreciable number, can not here be found; and, if they could, they can not teach elementary drawing so well as the regular teachers.

The moral effect of sending special teachers into the public schools to teach an elementary subject seems to me to be positively evil. Children who can not draw lines very well are apt to draw conclusions which are often not wide of the mark; and the effect of their seeing a special teacher come to give them their drawing-lessons makes them fancy that the subject must be very difficult; so much so, that their own teacher can not learn it; and then they go on wondering why they should be expected to learn what so wise and great a person as their teacher can not learn.

So that two false impressions are made: the first, that drawing is difficult; and the second, that the regular teacher is incapable of learning and teaching drawing to the scholars,—impressions which are demoralizing to both scholars and teachers. Drawing is an elementary subject; and I would ask, How many



of the elementary subjects could any teacher allow to be taken out of her hands and maintain the respect of the scholars?

Not many, I should think; and there is no reason whatever why drawing should be one of them. Even music and singing are now being taught by the regular school-teachers, who were never before supposed to have any ears, until a surgical examination made for musical purposes disclosed the fact that the majority of them, either by accident or design, had been so provided with the organs of hearing by a beneficent Providence.

The question of grading the subject of drawing so as to bring it into a consistent relationship to the graded schools becomes of much importance in view of the regular teachers' being the instructors; and it is not without influence if the work be carried on by special instructors.

I shall suppose, then, that we have four classes of schools representing the school periods,—viz., (1) *Primary*, (2) *Grammar*, (3) *High*, and (4) *Normal Schools*; and the question to be solved is to make the study of drawing in each school a preparation for the next, so that it shall hang together like a chain, or be like the stories of a house, resting upon and supporting each other; and I will therefore proceed to describe what is attainable in each.

Before doing so, I should remark that the subjects suitable for each class of school are progressive; the grammar-school work presupposing that the pupil has passed through the primary school, and the high-school student through both.

It will be seen, therefore, that, where drawing has not been practiced at all in any of the schools, the only grade which can adopt the following arrangement as it stands would be the primary schools. Where no drawing has been done in the higher schools, I should begin in them as in the primary schools, and work up to the specialties of each as prepared pupils came up from the lower schools. That is a difficulty which will right itself in time; and meanwhile it is well to have a standard to work to, so that, in the course of a few years, a sequential method may exist in them all. I come first, then, to the

**PRIMARY SCHOOLS.**—Dividing the scholars into six classes for convenience (the lowest being the sixth class), two groups, consisting of the sixth, fifth and fourth, and the third, second and first, will give us a sufficiently marked difference in the powers of the pupils. What should be the character of the work done in each group of classes? First to take classes 6, 5, and 4.

I regard the learning of names, sizes, and elementary shapes, and their relation to one another, as the chief work of the primary school, the drawing being done to illustrate what is being learned. For this reason, every exercise in the lower classes should appeal to the memory through the ear by a distinct name, and to the eye by a definite shape, and thus there will be two influences brought into play, helping forward the subject studied.

The definitions of lines, angles, triangles, quadrilaterals, polygons, and the simpler forms of curves, will both teach these names, sizes, and shapes, and give us the easiest examples with which to begin to teach drawing.

But little children weary with hard names, and tire of mere geometric shapes; and therefore, though they must be taught the difference between a *square* and a *triangle*, and between the length of two inches and six inches, as

it appears to the eye, the lessons which teach these necessary facts may be varied by others which are no tax at all upon any thing but the point of a slate-pencil.

We must get rid once and for ever of the notion that the reason why drawing should be learned and taught is to enable us to make pretty drawings. Neither nice-looking drawings nor accurate ones are possible to ordinary children; but the making of even passable drawings will teach them what they can learn in no other way.

Lessons to little children should be short, frequent, and sparkling; giving them no time to get tired, no time to forget, and no chance of going to sleep. They should be various, so that even those who like no lessons can not say, "Here is that tiresome thing again!" They should have a clear relationship to what the eye sees, and display what any young animal may discover for itself by using its senses of sight and touch.

Then, as memory plays so important a part in our usefulness and our happiness, every drawing-lesson must be impressed upon the pupils' memories by having it drawn again without the copy,—twice, if necessary to fix it in their minds; for a little learned and remembered is better than much learned and forgotten. Drawing from memory is essentially the process by which efficient draughtsmen are made; and therefore I want to see it begun in the primary schools.

Another phase of memory-drawing is called *dictation-drawing*, in which the teacher simply describes by word of mouth the subject to be produced, and does not illustrate it on the blackboard. This can only be carried out when the pupils have learnt the meaning of terms or expressions used in drawing. Thus in a dictation-lesson the teacher will use but few words (slowly given); the pupils knowing the meaning of each, and translating their meaning into form, such as this. Supposing the teacher to address the class as follows:—

"In the centre of your slates draw a vertical line six inches in length."

This is order No. 1. And its execution will entirely depend on the pupils' knowing what a vertical line is, and how long six inches are when placed in one straight line: so that the dictation-lesson is necessarily subsequent to other lessons which taught the meaning of these terms,—direction, size, position.

Then the second order is:—

"Through the centre of the vertical line draw a horizontal line of the same length as the vertical line."

Only one bit of knowledge is here required, viz., What is a horizontal line? which will have been drawn many times before, the *length* of the line having been determined on the vertical line.

The third order is,—

"These two lines are the diagonals of a square: draw the square."

In this the pupils must know the difference between diagonals and diameters; for the distinction affects the size of the square in this exercise.

Not to follow out the exercise to its minor details, it will be seen how such a lesson will educate both the imagination and the hand of the pupil, and teach the meaning of words without any great strain on the thinking-powers.

The material used by the pupils should be slates and slate-pencils, the teach-

er drawing the lessons on the blackboard usually; though, of course, in memory and dictation-lessons no drawings will be made by the teacher.

To insure variety in practice, the pupils should some times be required to draw from cards or copies,—the same size as examples,—so as to enable the teacher to spend a fair amount of time with each pupil, and to throw them upon their own resources without any general verbal explanation.

A large chart of an object or pattern hung upon the blackboard, its character and proportions described by the teacher, and required to be copied a definite size by the pupils, will add another class of lesson, which will further vary the instruction.

The time given per week by the youngest pupils should be at least two hours; and the division of it might be four lessons of half an hour each.

It must not be forgotten that the sympathies and loves of children will be as strongly marked as those of adults, though upon more trivial subjects or objects; and one phase of subjects which appeals strongly to a certain class may make no appeal to another. There should be, therefore, frequent changes in the kind of examples taken, so as to give all an opportunity of drawing that which they can best appreciate.

Classes 3, 2, 1. The higher classes in the primary schools will take up the more advanced exercises in the same subjects as the lower classes, drawing upon paper instead of slates. The first exercise will be to reproduce in review the easy work already done, so as to get into the use of paper and lead-pencil on subjects which have already been mastered. The definitions of plane geometry, drawn to a large scale, the memory and dictation lessons previously received, will be a fitting introduction to the new work, which will be more elaborate in its examples than in the lower classes.

Lessons, always in outline, from the blackboard, from cards, and from suspended charts, will give a sufficient variety to the work. But I want to see another sort of drawing-lesson given also; and that is, for the teacher, in giving object-lessons, to require the pupils to draw some peculiarity of the objects described, or some illustration in which the use of the object may be defined.

Suppose the object-lesson be the foliage of trees, and some twenty specimens of distinct varieties are described. These should be drawn diagrammatically by the pupils, however roughly; firstly on slates, copying the name of the tree, the name of the kind of leaf, and drawing its shape, all being described by the teacher with the real leaves shown to the pupils, and large diagrams drawn upon the blackboard. A second lesson to be a repetition of the first; the drawings being in books, and arranged systematically in groups.

Any child who can describe the difference in shape of two objects ought to be able to draw the difference; and will soon be able to do so, even to the smallest details, if trained by the teacher to express ideas both in words and forms with equal precision.

In the primary schools, drawing should be taught for the purpose of familiarizing the children with names and terms and common shapes; to accustom them to resort to drawing as readily as to speaking, when it will explain their ideas better: and the great thing the teacher has to remember is, that there will be always the same deficiencies of quality in the drawing of children as there are in their thoughts.

There must be no artificial difficulties made for children by arbitrary rules; such as that the slate or book must always be kept in one position, or that the accuracy of leading lines must never be tested by measurement. These old-fashioned rules do no good, but much harm, and are based upon ignorance of what the human frame is capable of doing without dislocating some of its most useful extremities.

I attach less value to great accuracy in the drawing of little children than I do to readiness and facility, and fair ability to draw any simple thing, either from copies, from memory, or from dictation. The accuracy will come as the understanding develops: the hand and eye will not be allowed to do their work badly when the understanding is always over them, and requiring to be obeyed. But even a poor drawing will have taught the child something; and it is not so much the perfect style with which we take one step in a journey which advances us to the end of it, as the persistence with which we go on repeating the steps, some of which will be inferior to others both in results and style, as the ground traveled is rough or smooth, level or inclined, and the pedestrian fresh or fatigued.

GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.—The number of classes in grammar schools may be assumed to be six, as in the primary schools; and the same grouping may be adhered to: viz., lower classes, 6, 5, 4; higher classes, 3, 2, 1.

Taking classes 6, 5, 4, to begin with, we may suppose that they have arrived at a fair basis of knowledge and some little skill in the primary schools, and may therefore be advanced to more difficult work, requiring one degree more care in the execution, and in which quite a new feature of representation is introduced.

In the primary schools, the drawings of objects are treated geometrically, so as to avoid the great difficulties of perspective effects. In the lower classes of the grammar schools, objects may be drawn on the blackboard, showing the roundness of forms, as well as their outlines or contours.

This enables the teacher to explain the elementary principles of perspective in general terms, and will give him the opportunity to vary his lessons by including familiar forms seen every day by the pupils, many of which can not be represented geometrically. The geometric solids will be treated now in the same way as the plane geometric forms were in the primary schools. Thus cones, cylinders, cubes, pyramids, prisms, spheres, and all the varieties of forms resulting from them, will be given as definitions in words, and be illustrated by drawings from the blackboard, carrying the pupil from flat to round, plane to solid, by a natural gradation.

In these classes a text-book or class-book may be used with efficiency, giving examples of more elaborate freehand outline and object drawing than the teacher will have time to put on the board. The exercises may be copied the same size, enlarged, or reduced, according to the ability of each pupil, or the directions of the book.

Map-drawing is another phase of the application of drawing, which should also be practiced in the grammar schools, and take its place alternately with other subjects.

Problems in plane geometry, the accurate construction of geometrical figures

with rulers and compass, worked from the large blackboard diagrams made by the teacher, can be introduced in the lower classes of the grammar schools; the whole course of from a hundred to a hundred and fifty problems being divided so as to give each of the six classes about one-third of the course. The repetition of a few problems as a pupil is advanced from one class to another will be an advantage.

The memory-drawing will now include a comparatively wide range of subjects: viz., freehand outline of ornament, of objects, of geometric solids, of plane geometrical problems, and of maps; and the dictation-lessons will be correspondingly advanced.

In the higher classes,—3, 2, 1,—drawing from the actual object takes the place of drawing from the blackboard of the same forms. The cylinder, which has before been drawn from the flat, in order to learn the principle of drawing it, is now placed before the eyes of the pupils; and objects also which are available, and that can be so placed in class-rooms that the children can see them, will form an important part of the course.

The more advanced problems in plane geometry will also be worked, and should now be very accurately drawn.

In model-drawing, single objects should first be given as subjects; and, when each of the elementary solids have been so often drawn that something like a fair understanding of it is perceptible, two may be placed together in a group, the combination being a rectangular solid, as a cube or oblong block, and a solid having a curved surface, as a sphere, cone, or cylinder; and so on to three or more objects grouped together, as the classes advance. So also with the geometrical drawing: the constructional problems having been worked in the lower classes, exercises on them, and deduction from the problems, should be given in the higher.

The freehand outline work, instead of being copies of other work, may also be advanced into the region of elementary design. Geometric forms being given, such as a square or triangle of stated dimensions, some element of form may be given, as a leaf and flower, or a leaf and berry; and the exercise to be that each pupil is to fill the geometric form by an adaptation of the material to the space given. The elementary form of which the design is to be made should be one which the pupils have drawn several times before, so that drawing it again will be quite an easy matter, and all the attention be given to making an ornamental arrangement of it that will be pleasing and original.

This may at first sight appear a difficult exercise for children; but it is, on the contrary, both simple and extremely popular. Those who have seen the beautiful little designs and arrangements made by children of five years and under, in the Kindergarten schools, will be able to see that, if a child be taught to draw from five years of age to fifteen in a sensible way upon a progressive method, it ought to be able to do at fifteen something in the way of original design. From twelve years of age to fifteen, every child ought to originate or design some form every week, no matter how simple at first, if only a repetition on a straight line of a plain leaf; and we should then soon see about us an artistic population, who would both create and appreciate good art and good design. The faculty of design has been left dormant in the majority of human beings, as though it were some sacred, priestly office, that it would be

sacrilegious to touch. But I want to see every child leaving school capable of designing the form of an object, its ornamentation if required, and be able, when called upon, to show us how the Greeks treated that kind of thing, and in what essential features the Greek and Gothic artists differed in their design and spirit.

Unless drawing, besides performing many other useful functions in education, has taught a scholar who graduates from a grammar school at least as much as that, it has been a useless plaything.

**LATIN AND HIGH SCHOOLS.**—In the lower classes of the high schools the age of the scholars should enable the teacher to obtain very satisfactory results, remembering the previous experience in primary and grammar schools. Shading may be attempted in these classes as a means of expressing roundness and surface; the method being illustrated in the text-book, and its application to the objects drawn being shown by exercises in half tint from the solid, until the parallel lines required in shading can be drawn with tolerable precision.

More advanced object-lessons, in which the principles of botany, anatomy, geology, architecture, and other sciences, are taught, may include in their reproduction the exercise of sketching in pencil, or pen and ink, to illustrate them.

The model-drawing lessons may now be more thoroughly understood through the illustrations, drawn freehand, of parallel and angular perspective.

The harmony of colors, illustrated by diagrams to be copied by the pupils, may be made the means of lessons in their mixture, producing secondary and tertiary colors, tints, hues, shades, and tones, and the origin and chemical character of the several pigments used in art.

Design, which has been hitherto limited to the arrangement of elements in geometric forms, should now be extended to natural foliage and flowers, which may have been employed in the botany lessons.

Thus a lesson in botany might take the drawing of the front and side view of the flower, and arrangement of leaves on the stem, the general coloring indicated by the washes of flat color. That will give the subject for the next lesson in design, the pupils reverting to their sketches for the materials, and applying them to ornament the object given.

In the higher classes of the high schools it seems to me legitimate to employ special instructors in drawing, because the subjects studied after so long a course of preparation in the lower schools and classes will be sufficiently advanced to require technical and professional knowledge in the teacher. The time given to drawing (two hours per week) is so short for such subjects as painting and perspective, that the ripest skill and experience will be required from the instructor to have any effect upon the student's work.

There should be a class-room fitted up in the high schools, properly lighted and seated, for the study of drawing, in which the advanced classes might receive their lessons. Perspective, worked with instruments upon drawing-boards, requires special arrangements of tables and desks; and the studies in light and shade, drawing from nature, and painting, necessitate a proper arrangement of light. This can not be secured in the ordinary class-rooms used for other purposes.

The teaching of the higher classes will be more individual than in any previous class; and considerable latitude may be allowed in the selection of subjects by the pupils themselves, under the guidance of the instructor. It may some times be necessary to have classes in projection or solid geometry, to prepare the pupils for technical studies which may be required of them in the technical institutes or universities to which some of them will proceed when they leave the high school.

Part of the training should consist of judiciously-arranged home-work, in which the student is thrown entirely on his own resources, bringing the results to his instructor for criticism.

Though art may be more studied, in the form of drawing, in the high schools than elsewhere, the motive still must be, that drawing is a means of expressing knowledge of some subject, not that a subject is taken up to display skill in drawing. The moment drawing is pursued for no other object than to display skill in touch, or tricks of execution, it becomes one of the "tricks that are vain," and, in the worst sense, purposeless; and, so soon as a youth is becoming satisfied with his own power in some one process, he should be taken from it, and required to work in a medium, or take up a branch of study he knows little or nothing about.

In few countries has the study of drawing as an educational agent been thoroughly carried out in the public schools, usually degenerating into an amusement, or [being] treated as an exceptional subject having no sequence or system, to be taken up any where, and put down every where. We shall see in the course of a few years, when it has been fairly taught through the schools here, that the new subject has had great influence on other studies, and been valuable in itself as cultivating undeveloped faculties which previously ran to waste. That is the experience of countries where attention has been given to it; and, it seems to me, will be our experience here.

**NORMAL SCHOOLS.**—The teaching of drawing in normal schools is for so definite a purpose, that there can be little difficulty in knowing what should be done in them.

The future teacher has to be educated in the language and the art of representation, and in the clearest methods of developing the power to draw.

It seems to me this can only be attained to by a thorough course of elementary training, so that, when the students are appointed to schools, they can teach drawing to children with as much readiness as they teach reading and writing.

The basis of this would be courses of lessons in freehand outline-drawing on and from the blackboard, model-drawing, geometrical and perspective drawing, and designing, as an elementary course.

The more advanced course would be drawing in light and shade from solid models, casts, flowers, and foliage, and from nature, landscapes, and architecture.

Principles of drawing, so that the student can draw a form as well without a copy as with it, are what a teacher wants, and thorough knowledge of all simple processes by which the visible forms of many various objects may be presented clearly to the eye.

Lessons and lectures occasionally given on the art of teaching drawing, the best methods of correcting wrong lines, the simplest tests by which errors may

be made palpable to the pupil, and convincingly displayed, should be among the agencies in the art-education given at normal schools; and such lectures should be given by art-masters of the greatest experience and ripest skill.

A great part of the work of normal students should be in designing examples of lessons to be given on the blackboard to children, taking a given object, and setting it to the simplest proportions, so that it may be well drawn; and, thus prepared, it should be given by one of the students to the whole school. Each should have such an exercise every week, and every week one student [be] selected to give a lesson to the others.

In addition to this elementary work, an hour each week ought to be given to drawing in light and shade from the solid form, so that the student may acquire at least more knowledge of drawing than will ever be expected of him in the schools he may have to teach.

Unless every normal school has a drawing-class room, fitted for such study, and well furnished with models and examples, the education in drawing carried on in it will be very meagre and superficial.

The studio in art is to art-study what the laboratory is to chemistry; without experiments and manipulation in both, the teaching must be too theoretical.

In the normal school the drawing must be rapid and clear: for the teacher, who will presently have to correct thirty or forty bad drawings at least twice in half an hour, *must* draw quickly, or leave half the work undone; and *must* draw clearly, or be only half understood. Fine drawing is, therefore, most essential; and exercises which at first take half an hour to get through ought to be repeated until they can be done easily in ten minutes.

Memory and dictation drawing are also of the highest importance to teachers, and should therefore form a due proportion in their studies.

It is by no means essential that a power to draw very elaborate or difficult subjects should be possessed by the common-school teacher, but rather the power to draw simple things accurately, quickly, and without a moment's hesitation. That is what will give them the confidence of their pupils, and, what is quite as necessary, confidence in themselves.

Leaving the specialties of the graded schools, I would like now to address to you some general observations on the work of all.

I have put the time given to drawing in all the schools at two hours per week in the class-room; and, to make it efficient, as much time should be given outside. Little has been said about drawing on the blackboard by pupils, because, as the same remark would apply to all the grades, it has been left to be said now.

Every pupil in all the classes and schools, with the exception of the three first classes of the primary schools, should draw every week upon a large scale on the blackboard; and to make this practical, when three lessons per week are given, one-third of the class should draw each lesson, so that, after three lessons,—i.e., the work of one week,—every pupil will have drawn on the board. That applies only to such exercises as consist of outline-drawing. Shading ought never to be attempted on a blackboard, nor exercises in color either.

It is safer to keep the lessons a little below the capacities of the pupils than a little above them, and thus to expect better results in the way of clearness



and finish than would be possible if the pupil had to struggle hard every new lesson to keep up to his fresh difficulties. And one principle must be ever remembered, viz., to set our faces steadily against the making of pretty or very elaborate drawings, which consume too much of the little time that can be given to the subject in day schools; also, to impress on the minds of the pupils that drawing is not done for its own sake, but learned as a means of understanding other things: it is illustrative rather than objective.

In the discharge of my duties in the State of Massachusetts, I have drawn up a table of the arrangement of studies as described in this paper, so that those who may not have given as much time and attention to the subject as I have might see in a tabulated form what seemed to me to be the best course of study in all the graded schools. It is intended for circulation in the state through the board of education; but, in order that you might the more clearly comprehend my views upon the matter, I have had copies of this scheme struck off for distribution among those teachers who feel interested in the subject, and have put them into the hands of the officers of the association to be so distributed.\*

I have to ask your acceptance of them as my contribution towards the object of this meeting; not that I consider the scheme by any means complete, but suggest it, under our present circumstances, as a rough plan of operation in a new field, by one who, laboring in that field, has borne a fair share of the burden and the heat of the day in days gone by and in countries far away.

I shall further trespass on your forbearance to listen to a few concluding remarks.

After a year's experience in examining and inspecting the teaching of drawing in the schools of this country, I am convinced that there is here a great practical genius for education, which is competent to grasp and comprehend any new subject in a much shorter time than it takes to introduce it into older countries. Though the schools are not yet perfection, nor the whole of the teachers as highly trained as they might be, I have seen drawing taught in class-rooms in this state by teachers who never had a lesson in drawing in their lives, yet who taught it better, and incomparably better, than I ever saw it taught in any European country.

I think that is something to say; and it fills me with the profoundest satisfaction to be able to say it. Though I have been studying this subject, and teaching the subject, all my working-life, it has been my good fortune to listen to teachers here who have taken it up as one of many subjects they were required to teach, and have seen them give drawing-lessons with a clearness, a precision, and practical skill on the blackboard, surpassing any teaching of the kind I ever saw.

That is the ground of my confidence in the teachers' of our common schools being perfectly competent to teach drawing. There is yet an absence of the appliances with which to teach; but we shall get all these in time. It is not possible for this country to remain definitely behind other countries for a long time in any thing which is necessary to human progress, or which increases human skill; for, when that is the case, America will have ceased to exist.

Some European countries have had a hundred, some fifty, and some thirty

\* The scheme is printed at the end of this paper.

years' start of us in this subject; and that is handicapping us rather heavily in the race for distinction in art-education.

Yet, in these days, progress does not depend so much upon the time we have been traveling as the rate of speed at which we run, and the straightness of the road along which we are progressing. From my own observation, I judge that the balance is considerably in our favor in these respects; and therefore, though we have yet something to learn, we have happily nothing to unlearn; and the prospects of our winning the race are so good, that I expect to live in the days when European travelers will come across the Atlantic to study the art-education of America.

This, if it becomes a reality, will be brought about in our common schools more than by schools of art, and by regular teachers like you rather than special teachers like myself; for it is the education which children get that forms the character of a nation; and the demands of an art-loving people will at all times produce a race of ministering artists.

Let the teaching of drawing in the public schools be sound, practical, and sensible, and art schools, museums and galleries will as inevitably come as that harvest follows seed-time.

The foundation-stone of American liberty says that all men are born free and equal: as teachers, it is our business to see that this means freedom from ignorance, and equality with the best.

The time-honored arts have not been the monopoly of a race or period: their features may have changed in revolving centuries; the theatre on which their excellence has been displayed has shifted from place to place; yet, wherever there has existed a happy combination of freedom, peace and prosperity, and love of education, there the arts have flourished, and shed lustre and glory upon the race and epoch which have been free, educated, and artistic.

It falls legitimately within the righteous ambition of any nation to desire that its citizens shall be capable of exercising all the nobler faculties of human nature, among which is a reverence for and love of the beautiful in nature and art, in the revelations of Almighty Power in natural phenomena, and in the manifestation of artistic skill in the accumulated monuments of art; for such a characteristic will in all times increase the happiness, whilst it adds to the prosperity, of the nation.

Let us reverently hope that a country which has fulfilled some of the conditions of this distinction may also reap some of its rewards.

As the greatest living writer on art has expressed it, "We may abandon the hope, or, if you like the words better, we may disdain the temptation, of the pomp and grace of Italy in her youth. For us there can be no more the throne of marble, for us no more the vault of gold: but for us there is the loftier and lovelier privilege of bringing the power and charm of art within the reach of the humble and the poor; and, as the magnificence of past ages failed by its narrowness and its pride, ours may prevail and continue by its universality and its lowliness.

"The paintings of Raphael and of Buonarrotti gave force to the falsehoods of superstition, and majesty to the imagination of sin; but our art may have for its task to inform the soul with truth, and touch the heart with compassion.

"The steel of Toledo and the silk of Genoa did but give strength to oppress-

ion, and lustre to pride. Let it be for our furnaces and our looms, as they have already richly earned, still more abundantly to bestow comfort on the indigent, civilization on the rude, and to dispense through the peaceful homes of nations the grace and the preciousness of simple adornment and useful possession."

The art of the future will recognize no feasts of the gods, nor martyrdoms of saints. "We have no need of sensuality, no place for superstition or costly insolence." But there is in us, as there has been in all great epochs of the world's history, a yearning after the beautiful in thought and language, and form and color; and the country in which love of art is the most general, and its practice in the highest branches the most thorough, shall now, as in the past, be the representative to all future ages of the civilization of mankind.

**COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.**

**BOARD OF EDUCATION, STATE HOUSE.**

**Department of Art Education.**

[SEAL.]

**Scheme of Instruction in Drawing suggested for graded Public Schools in Massachusetts, complying with the Act of 1870 concerning Industrial Drawing.**

*Arranged by Walter Smith, State Director of Art Education, Mass.*

Schools.	Classes.	Time Given per Week.	No. of Lessons per Week.	Length of Lessons.	Drawing on	Taught by
1. Primary Schools.	6, 5, 4.	Two hours.	Four.	30 minutes.	Slates.	Regular teacher.
2. Primary Schools.	*3, 2, 1.	Two hours.	Four.	30 minutes.	Paper in blank-books.	Regular teacher.
3. Grammar Schools.	*6, 5, 4.	Two hours.	Three.	40 minutes.	Paper in blank-books and text-books.	Regular teachers.
4. Grammar Schools.	*3, 2, 1.	Two hours.	Three.	40 minutes.	Paper in blank-books and text-books.	Regular teachers.
5. Latin and High Schools.	*Lower classes.	Two hours.	Two.	60 minutes.	Paper in blank-books and text-books.	Regular teachers.
6. Latin and High Schools.	*Higher classes.	Two hours.	Two.	60 minutes.	Paper in blank-books and on sheets.	Special instructors.
7. Normal Schools.	*All the classes.	Two hours.	Two.	60 minutes.	Paper in blank-books.	Special instructors.

## **Subjects Taught, and Order of Lessons for Each Week.**

The figures, 1, 2, 3, 4, signify the first, second, third and fourth lessons in each week.

Where two alternative subjects are named, one is to be taken one week, and another the following week.

Reference to a text-book means that whatever drawing-book is in use in the schools shall be drawn from, as a distinct exercise.

\* All the classes marked thus are to draw upon the blackboard when the lesson is suitable to such an exercise; one-third of the class to draw each lesson, so that the whole class will have drawn upon the board every three lessons.

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1. Free-hand outline from cards, charts, and blackboard-lessons, the first copies. Memory-lessons, drawing previous exercises from memory. Definition of plane geometry to be learned by heart, and illustrations drawn. Dictation-lessons of right-line figures and simple curves.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. From cards or charts. 2. From blackboard. 3. Memory and dictation alternately. 4. Geometric definitions.
2. The more advanced copies in cards, charts, and blackboard-lessons. Memory and dictation lessons (without illustrations). Object-lessons, illustrated by drawings. Geometrical definitions, drawn on a large scale.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. From cards or chart. 2. From blackboard. 3. Memory and dictation alternately. 4. Object-lessons and geometric definitions alternately.

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3. Free-hand outlines of ornament and objects, from blackboard. Lessons in text-book. Map-drawing. Memory and dictation lessons. Geometrical exercises,—plane geometry up to 50 problems of constructional figures.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. Objects from blackboard and drawing from text-book alternately. 2. Memory-drawing and dictation-exercises, alternately. 4. Geometrical and map drawing alternately.
4. Free-hand outline drawing, from solid models. Geometrical drawing, up to the end of the course. Design in geometric forms, from the blackboard. Memory-drawing. Map-drawing. Dictation-lessons.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. Model-drawing, from object. 2. Geometrical and memory drawing alternately. 3. Map-drawing and design, alternately.

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5. Model and object drawing, with exercises in perspective, drawn by the free hand. Object-lessons, illustrating historical art and architecture. Shading from models and copies. Harmony and mixture of colors. Design from natural foliage.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. Model shading and object-lessons alternately. 2. Lessons in color, and exercises in design alternately.
6. Perspective by instruments. Shading in chalk and color, from models, and natural objects and foliage. Design in color and shadow. Projection. Lectures on painting, sculpture, and architecture.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. Perspective and projection alternately. 2. Painting or shading, and design, alternately.

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7. Object-drawing and design. Ornamental design. Historical lessons. Advanced dictation and memory lessons. Lessons in teaching drawing. Perspective, advanced. Designing blackboard examples.

### **ORDER OF LESSONS.**

1. Object-drawing and design alternately. 2. Perspective and dictation or memory lessons, alternately. 3. Lessons in teaching drawing occasionally.

The paper was discussed by Hon. B. G. NORTHROP, New Haven, Ct.

Mr. NORTHROP presented his resignation of the office of President of the Association, but was persuaded to reconsider his action.

Adjourned.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association was called to order by the President.

Mr. HENKLE, of Ohio, presented the following list of names for honorary membership in the Association:

Hon. WM. GASTON, Mayor of Boston.	
Rev. R. C. WATERSTON,	} of the School Committee of Boston.
F. H. UNDERWOOD,	
A. BRONSON OLCOTT, Concord, Mass.	
Hon. HENRY BARNARD, Hartford, Ct.	
EDWARD SHIPPEN, Pres. School Board, Philadelphia.	
ARINORI MORI, Ambassador from Japan to the United States.	

The gentlemen named were unanimously elected honorary members.

*The President.* Ladies and Gentlemen, before we close the labors of this meeting of our Association, it affords me great pleasure to introduce to you the Honorable Ambassador from the Empire of Japan to the United States of America, Mr. ARINORI MORI, who has consented to say a few words respecting the educational movement in his own country. [Applause.]

#### REMARKS OF MR. MORI.

*Mr. Mori* said:— It gives me great pleasure indeed, Mr. President, to be here. I have taken great interest in the educational movement in this land. I shall be happy to inform you of the recent movement in regard to education in Japan. You may have heard that we have had a social and political revolution in Japan, four years ago. At that time education was not considered of the first importance; but those who represent the new government struggled for the advancement of our nation. Formerly, foreign relations were not thought of primary, but only of secondary consideration. But recently, the government has decided to take every opportunity for our progress by adopting foreign improvements and introducing employments.

That was just at the opening of our educational movement. Then they saw it was necessary to establish a Bureau of Education; and about a dozen teachers have been engaged. Most of them are from this country. The people of Japan have become better acquainted with foreigners and have become very anxious to tolerate different religions.

They have found their struggles of very little use until this time, because of the little knowledge of foreign languages. Our language is poor, and is limited within ourselves, because we have no occasion to use it for higher purposes; and it became very short. Then the government began to send a good many youth to different countries abroad, to learn their language; particularly, also, to learn every kind of art and science; and in all, there have been sent out as

many as five or six hundred. Some of them have returned, and they are now in the government service. They have informed the government that, without having good education at home, our civilization can not be obtained. The information received by the Japanese youth who have returned from abroad had a very good effect upon the minds of the officers of the government; but still, the higher officers of the government, who have never seen foreign lands or foreign habits and institutions, could not realize the importance of it.

But the intercourse having increased very largely, they could not help to decide that those high officers in the government should better go abroad and learn themselves; although it was very hard on the part of the government to send those high officers. For instance, the ambassador who recently came here, IWAKURA, is the acting Prime Minister of Japan; and without him our government finds it very hard to get on. But they made the decision that until the return of these high officers home they would do very little things, and do nothing almost. [Laughter.]

You will therefore understand that our schools are something different from those you have here; but those high officers who have come here have been, I am very glad to inform you, fully convinced of the importance of education of youth, both male and female. [Applause.]

They have a commissioner among their party from the educational department. He has left here some time ago, and gone to Europe. A good many gentlemen of this country have helped him very heartily and sincerely, so that he obtained very valuable information; and he informed me one day, before he left here, that he had found a great deal of profit in visiting this country, not to himself alone, but he had seen the necessity, he said, of introducing the English language as much as possible [Applause] into Japan, and that foreign teachers, principally from this country, should be employed. And without these steps of foreign education, he said nothing could be done. I have heard the same words from every one of the ambassadors. Railroads, they said, were important, but still education was first. [Applause.]

Here is another thing that I wish to say, which I heard from the Mayor of Yeddo, who arrived last evening. He has about a million people under his care, and he is anxious to see them start in every direction of progress. But he said that the intercourse between natives and foreigners was the principal element of education. But this intercourse can not be had generally until we adopt or teach the English language. He has started many schools before he left Japan; yet he said that since he had come here and seen the real state of things, he has been fully convinced of the importance of education. He has many plans and purposes to be accomplished on his return. He said that some things might well be deferred for education; other things must be left at present; we can not undertake too many things at once. Those are the remarks made by him, and I have given the remarks of the ambassadors and commissioners; yet they are the first pupils to enter the western schools. But on their return I have no doubt they will immediately work for that end.

We have started a good many schools, and many female schools also. [Applause.] From various sources I have collected information on the subject; and I must say that the whole nation has turned its mind to the subject of ed-

ucation; but, on account of the want of teachers, they are yet unable to have a sufficient number of schools and material for them in the way of books, etc.

It has been our endeavor to recommend to the government of Japan, and also those ambassadors who came here, that before we start any definite plan of education, we better consult the prominent educators and learned gentlemen of this country, and also in Europe, on the subject, and that we should first start a good number of female schools and make teachers principally, in different parts of the country. That suggestion was taken into consideration and seemed to be very valuable. But that was only my own idea; but if it were not too much for me to hope, I would say that for our education in Japan I would be glad to have experienced and learned educators, both gentlemen and ladies, contribute to me, or to the government of Japan, any suggestions they may have upon this subject. It seems very important to me to start well, if it were only for the destiny of Japan alone; but it will have great influence over the whole of Asia. If we fail in Japan, in any undertaking, it is so much loss to the whole of Asia. I consider Japan the gate to the whole of Asia. [Applause.] And therefore, I beseech you, sir, and gentlemen and ladies, to have the kindness to favor me with any suggestions that you can give me upon this subject; or your influence, either directly or indirectly.

So far, I have received from you important kindnesses, and I have been almost overwhelmed with my joys and gratitude for them. My acquaintances have been helping me more than I expected, especially the U.S. Commissioner of Education in Washington; and I hope I may receive any communication on the subject through that gentleman, that I may lay it before the government of Japan and the people.

I do not know any more to say, and am sorry to say my language is not very intelligible, which I hope you will excuse. I will say only this, that my feeling is very strong on the subject of education, and I thank the members of this Association for their kind attention with my most deep-felt heart. [Applause.]

*The President.* On behalf of this Association, I wish to extend to the Minister from Japan our sincere thanks for the honor he has conferred upon us by his presence, and for the very great pleasure he has afforded, in speaking to us such words of information respecting his country. And I will also add, what I need not express, that he has our warmest sympathy and our blessing for the success of that great movement in his country. [Applause.]

A request having been made that Mr. Mori should utter a few sentences in his own language, he cheerfully complied, remarking as he concluded: As I said, our language is so very poor that it will become useless very soon. I expect that when foreign schools are established throughout our country, the English language will become predominant, and our own language will be very much diminished, and finally become a kind of curiosity; and what I say now is in the part of that curiosity. [Laughter and applause.]

Mr. Z. RICHARDS, Washington, D.C., Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, presented the following report:

Inasmuch as, through the kind and overruling providence of God, the National Educational Association has been permitted to hold this its twelfth annual meeting, in the fourteenth year of its existence, in the City of Boston, we



would, in the first place, render unfeigned thanks to our Heavenly Father for His goodness and watchful care in permitting a few of the original members of this Association to meet on this occasion and welcome to their number so many noble and distinguished co-workers; and we would further thank our Heavenly Father for the manifest influence of His guiding spirit in producing such remarkable unity of feeling and action in our deliberations.

Also the following:—

WHEREAS, Congress has passed through the House of Representatives, and has under consideration in the Senate, a measure: First, setting apart the net proceeds of the sale of the public lands for educational purposes, reserving one-half of the annual profit of these lands as a permanent fund, and disbursing the other half, together with accruing interest, annually, among the several states for a term of years, on the basis of illiterates, as a method of aiding most those states that need most, and afterwards on the basis of the entire population;

WHEREAS, this aid is bestowed upon such conditions only as are calculated to secure, with the greatest certainty, the object proposed, the universal education of the people; thus in no way interfering with the constitutional or traditional relations of the general government to the several commonwealths; and

WHEREAS, we are profoundly impressed with the necessity of this aid to overcome the ignorance which is so perilous to the country; and

WHEREAS, we can see how it will aid in giving a new impulse to education in the most intelligent communities; and

WHEREAS, this action of Congress is a recognition of the principle of national aid to education, which this Association has emphatically recommended; therefore,

*Resolved*, That this Association heartily commends the action taken by Congress, and calls upon the friends of universal intelligence and virtue in the land to give this bill their hearty support, as one the importance of which is not outweighed by that of any other measure before Congress.

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this Association are hereby extended to Hon. Mr. PERCE, of Miss., and Hon. GEO. F. HOAR, of Mass., and the other members of Congress to whose active efforts are due the introduction and prospects of success of this important measure at the national capital.

*Resolved*, That we recognize the great importance of education in art, and that we most earnestly recommend to the boards of education and the teachers of the country the early adoption of measures looking to its introduction into all our schools.

*Resolved*, That in the careful special preparation of the great mass of teachers we have the only guaranty of the success of our public school system, and that we desire earnestly to urge forward all well-directed efforts to this end, through the establishment of normal schools of the different grades, of institutes, and such other instrumentalities as the pressing needs of the country demand.

*Resolved*, That the introduction into the public schools of correct methods of instruction in the elements of science is a subject demanding immediate and most careful attention.

WHEREAS, the profession of teaching stands at the source of all other occupations; and

WHEREAS, in the United States the subjects connected with education must, in order to the efficient support of schools, be understood by the people generally; and

WHEREAS, many of the subjects connected with teaching and the organization and support of schools require extended and profound examination under great difficulties; and

WHEREAS, the compensation or profit of those engaged in the business of professional educators does not make it possible for them to be at the personal expense of these labors, and publications of the sort demanded are not yet sufficiently profitable to invite voluntary private efforts adequate to these professional examinations of facts and systems; and

WHEREAS, there is no other concern more national, or more intimately affecting the entire body-politic; therefore,

*Resolved*, That we congratulate ourselves and the country that the national bureau of education has been enabled, to some extent, to begin to meet those wants, by pursuing those investigations which are increasing the value of educational statistics, and by publishing occasionally, for the benefit of the educators of the country, the rare products in the educational field in this and other countries.

*Resolved*, That, in our opinion, facilities for the publication of circulars of information by the national bureau of education should be increased; also, that Congress should provide for a larger edition of the annual report of the bureau, to be distributed immediately on its publication, as an executive document, among the teachers and school-officers of the country, in order that they may have at once, in the conduct of their work in the current year, the advantage of its aggregation of information drawn from the previous year's experience.

*Resolved*, That in the death of W. O. HISKEY, of Minnesota, an officer of this Association, the cause of popular education has lost an able, earnest and efficient laborer, the Christian church one of its brightest ornaments, and society a large-hearted and noble man.

*Resolved*, That our thanks are due, and are hereby tendered, to the President and other officers of this Association, and also to the presiding officers of the several departments, for the faithful and efficient manner in which they have performed their several duties;

*Also*, to the Citizens, and especially to the Local Committee, of the City of Boston, for their kind and liberal provisions for the accommodation and comfort of the members of this convention;

To the Press, for the noticeable accuracy of their reports of what we have said and done;

To such of the railroad and steamboat companies as have offered reduced fare to the delegates;

To such proprietors of hotels as have reduced their charges for entertainment;

To the officers of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, for their kind invitation to this body to visit all parts of that institution;

To the President and Faculty of Harvard University, for a similar invitation to visit that venerable and honored institution of learning; and finally,

To the Municipal and Public-School Authorities of Boston, for their invitation to the members of this Association to participate in their liberal hospitalities at Faneuil Hall.

The resolutions were adopted.

It was voted that a copy of the resolutions regarding sale of public lands, and and also of those relating to the Bureau of Education, be sent by the secretary to the senators and representatives in Congress, and placed also in the hands of the Japanese Minister.

There being no further business, the President returned his hearty thanks to those associated with him in the labors of the year, and to the Association for the great honor conferred in calling upon him to preside over its deliberations now nearly closed.

He then introduced his successor, Hon. B. G. NORTHROP, of Connecticut, who in a few brief words accepted the position with its honors and labors.

The Association then adjourned *sine die*.

In the evening the members of the Association, in response to the invitation of the School Committee, assembled in Faneuil Hall, where they were entertained with a bountiful collation, music, and brief addresses from gentlemen representing different sections of the country.

## THE CITY'S RECEPTION.

The exercises of the Association closed with a reception and banquet tendered by the City of Boston and given in Faneuil Hall. Rev. Dr. R. C. WATERSTON called the assembly to order, and introduced President CHADBOURNE, of Williams College, who invoked the Divine blessing. Without further ceremony, those present were invited to partake of the good things spread before them, and responded heartily. Nearly an hour was passed pleasantly at the tables, CARTER'S Band furnishing the music meanwhile; and at a little past nine o'clock the Rev. Mr. WATERSTON again called the assembly to order, and made a brief address. He then read a letter from Mayor GASTON, expressing his regret at being obliged to be absent from the city at such a time, and in his stead introduced the Hon. A. H. RICE, President of the Board of Trade, and formerly Mayor of Boston.

### REMARKS OF HON. A. H. RICE.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I am certain that I feel a very great weight of obligation to my distinguished friend for the very handsome manner in which he has presented me to this company. I am here quite unexpectedly. I have come as a citizen of Boston, without official position, and without any present connection with the educational institutions of the city; but simply as one of the citizens of Boston, to testify to their cordial interest in and sympathy with the great cause which you have undertaken and are carrying forward; and also with the hope of supplying one place made vacant by those necessarily absent.

I esteem it a great honor to the City of Boston that she is the recipient of so large and distinguished a body of the educators of the country. I recognize in what has been said heretofore, although I have not had the honor and pleasure of attending your meetings, that this organization is a national association of teachers, and I confess there is something peculiarly interesting and fascinating in that word "national." There was a time when we had no national association of teachers, neither in name nor in fact; nor was it possible to have a national association representing what might be called a national system of education.

It was only a very few years ago, in a conversation held with one of the most

distinguished men in a neighboring state, that he occupied a considerable time in an argument with me against the cause of popular education, on the ground, as he said, that the education of the common people would tend to render them unfit for those common labors which were the necessary inheritance of the masses. It was not many years ago that that argument was made with considerable force. As I stand here this evening, in the presence of so many of the intelligent educators of the nation, indicating how thoroughly the sentiment of devotion to the cause is permeating the whole community, and as I contrast the present opinion and acknowledged results with the propositions laid down by the gentleman to whom I have referred, I am impressed more than ever before by the falsity of his position, and by the great advance which the popular mind has made in the direction of universal education.

What do we find to be the result of experience, as compared with the current opinion out of New England twenty-five years ago? The more highly cultivated the boy or girl, the man or woman, in stead of being unfitted thereby for the practical duties of life, the more they are able to accomplish in even common pursuits. It is clearly demonstrated by statistics, and by the actual test of experiment in our mills and factories, that in the matter of economy, looking at no higher object, the results of educated labor are vastly superior in value to those of the uneducated.

I can only express the gratification which I know the members of the city government, of those gentlemen whose duty it is to appear on occasions of this kind, by their connection with municipal affairs and with our school system, would have experienced at being present to extend to this company a sincere and cordial welcome. I know they would have done it in their official capacity in a manner much more distinguished and acceptable than as a private citizen I can hope to do. But I bid you a sincere and cordial welcome to our city, while I but express the universal desire that your stay may be a source of present and future gratification to you all. [Applause.]

*Mr. Waterston* presented Professor B. G. NORTHROP, President-elect of the Association, and recently selected by the Japanese government for an important position in connection with the educational movement in that country.

*Mr. Northrop* said, in reply to the question what had inspired this advance in sentiment in Japan, that the Father of All had been its author, but that much was owing to governmental changes. The uniting of the two governments in 1868 had done much to bring about this result. Such a sight had never been witnessed in history. Caste was abolished, and now the opportunity of reaching any position is as open as in this country. All this sprang from pure patriotism. Now, in stead of the long-existing stagnation, there is an unparalleled enthusiasm. Our Congress, busy in its president-making, could n't find time to decide the question of admitting six Japanese students to West Point. If next season they are not admitted, England and France, now losing prestige in Japan, will open their doors. Shall this foolish policy, which will keep hundreds away from our country, be continued? The indemnity fund due to Japan ought to be paid at once, especially as, when paid, it is to be devoted to educational purposes. He hoped the matter would receive the attention of the country and of Congress at once.

*Hon. Joseph White*, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, spoke for the state. Alluding to the charge, some times made, that Massachusetts is noted for her radicalism, he said that she came honestly by it. It is an inheritance from the fathers. She is not a whit more radical to-day than was the first man who built his hut on this peninsula where we are now assembled. And in respect to education, she has to-day no deeper sense of its value, to the individual and the state, that had JOHN WINTHROP and his compeers, who, in 1635, engaged "Brother PHILEMON PORMONT" to be the first master of the first free school in Boston, and paid his wages by a general and liberal voluntary contribution. Moreover, in the venerable statutes of 1647 are found the vital elements of all her subsequent school legislation. Even at an earlier period, in 1642, the principle of Compulsory Education, of which so much is now said, was clearly announced, in an order requiring the "selectmen of every town to have a vigilant eye over their neighbors, to see that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to endeavor to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them to read perfectly the English tongue, and knowledge of the Capital Laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein."

It is only in the more thorough application of the principles enunciated by the fathers, and improved methods of teaching and organization, that we of the present generation have made any considerable progress.

While Massachusetts claims to have the oldest system of free schools in the country, if not in the world, and to have established the first municipal graded schools, Mr. W. expressed the fear that, resting content with past achievements, she would fail to keep pace with her younger sisters in that progress which the present times demand.

The speaker closed with some earnest words for the continuance of the Bible in the common schools, as the great Text-Book of that public morality without which the existence of a free state is an impossibility; and also with the expression of the pleasure it gave him to meet so many of the leading educators of the whole country in Massachusetts and in Faneuil Hall.

*Hon. E. E. White* gave some reminiscences of two visits made by him to Boston years ago, the latter in an official capacity, when he was the recipient of many attentions, and had the opportunity of examining its schools and other institutions. This reception is in keeping with the reputation of the city for hospitality, and is another evidence of the high regard which the good people of Boston feel, not only toward the cause of education, but to the workers in that cause. Standing in this presence, I feel that silence would be more eloquent than any words of mine. There are times when we seem to stand so near to the departed that only a thin veil appears to separate us. In this old "Cradle of Liberty," that has resounded with words of liberty that have run through the world and shall reverberate through the coming centuries, we seem to stand so near to the fathers that we can almost feel their heart-beats and their presence. As teachers of the nation, we hope that the day may speedily come when the educational spirit of these fathers shall bless every portion of this country; and when the schools which they planted, and which their descendants carried with them as they pushed the wilderness toward the Rocky Mountains, may consecrate every square mile of our peopled territory.

*Mr. White* then asked to be excused from acting as President, and invited Hon. JOHN EATON, Jr., U.S. Commissioner of Education, to take the platform as Chairman.

*Gen'l Eaton* acknowledged that he had been called to do an awkward thing, without notice, to preside on such an occasion; but there had been formerly minute-men in Boston, and perhaps it was his duty to serve as one now, in obedience to this sudden call of the President. Enjoying this feast here in this old hall, whose walls are animated with the speaking eyes and lips of the honored dead, we are reminded of the antagonisms of the past, when the Puritan and the Quaker dwelt here; the one guided more by the light of the Bible, and the other more by his inner light, yet both struggled toward the realization of the same liberty and became important parts of the same nation. Puritans and Quakers are represented here to-day.

I call upon a man to speak to you whom the Quaker State has selected to guide its youth in their steps toward intelligence and virtue, and to supervise the disbursement for the support of education of \$10,000,000,—Hon. Mr. WICKERSHAM.

*Hon. J. P. Wickersham.* Mr. President, if I were a revengeful man, I would certainly, for being called out to speak here, now, give the speech that I did not make last night on Compulsory Education. [Laughter.] And I will say this, and there is a whole sermon in it, that I would make every school-house in the United States of America as attractive as this hall and this banquet have been made, and then I am sure we would need no compulsory law. I have observed that, for the days during our session, large numbers of members have been wandering outside of the rooms in which the meetings were held; and I hardly believe that all the police of the City of Boston could have kept them together; and yet, strange to say, this banquet has been so attractive that we see them all here. Had the roll been called, every one would have answered to his name. So I propose that the school-houses should be made so attractive that children can not stay away.

It would seem that I am to speak for the State of Pennsylvania, and for the Quakers in particular. I am glad to do it; I am glad to speak for that state in this old hall, and on this platform; I am glad to say a word for those people who came over with WILLIAM PENN and settled on the Delaware. Pennsylvania, materially speaking, is a great state. We have great rivers and great mountains; we have a population now approaching four millions; we have limestone, iron ore, coal and oil, to an amount which no man has computed or can compute. We have rich and fertile fields, and we have great manufacturing facilities. Pennsylvania, sir, I am sure, possesses resources that will make her the equal in the race with any of the great states, even the states of the West, in the coming years.

Historically speaking, sir, Pennsylvania has some claim. You have here the "Cradle of Liberty" in old Faneuil Hall; but we have in Pennsylvania, to match it, the hall in which the Declaration of Independence was made, with its "Liberty Bell." You have, out yonder, Lexington and Bunker Hill; we have in Pennsylvania Valley Forge and Brandywine. And I saw to-day a statue of good old BENJAMIN FRANKLIN up near your Court-House; we can take you

to Franklin's grave. And if that statue could speak to-day, it would tell you that while Massachusetts may be a good state to be born in, Pennsylvania is a good state to live and to be buried in. I could refer you to other men, who, born in New England, have come to Pennsylvania to live and to die. Need I name THADDEUS STEVENS, whose work in the cause of education and of freedom will not be forgotten? He was born among the hills of Vermont, but he came to live in Pennsylvania, and to be buried under her sod.

Then, too, from the land of the Quakers, more recently, during the late war, we sent 360,000 armed men to fight the battles of the country, and in its high tide the rebellion swept up into Pennsylvania, where it met its death-blow on the field of Gettysburg. And there are sleeping in the cemetery at Gettysburg, to-day, the sons of Massachusetts, of New England, New York, and of the great West, quietly alongside the sons of Pennsylvania.

But educationally Pennsylvania will measure up along with the other proud states of the Union. We will expend, this year, for purposes of education, the magnificent sum of \$10,000,000. We have built school-houses to the extent of \$4,000,000. We have more than 18,000 teachers. We have six normal schools, and shall have ten before the end of another year. And last, but not least, Pennsylvania is taking care of her soldiers' orphans. She has collected all those left destitute by the death of their fathers, and is educating them for the duties of life. We believe we have done more than all the states together for this good purpose. [Applause.] Pennsylvania does not intend to stop in this work, but to go on educationally, and patriotically, till the land of PENN shall stand among the foremost in the Union.

*Hon. John Swett*, of California, then gave a humorous speech, recapitulating some of his experiences during his twenty years' absence from New England, and promising for California a worthy future in every thing that goes to make a state.

*Col. Joseph Hodgson*, of Alabama, was then introduced. He said: Ladies and Gentlemen, the speaker who preceded me remarked that he had almost lost his identity; I assure you, my friends, that I feel as if I had entirely lost mine. Appearing before a Boston audience, in Faneuil Hall, is an event in the life of any southern man.

Speaking in this presence, speaking with these illustrious faces looking down upon us, I feel how inadequate any words that I can express are to meet the requirements of the occasion. I come before you, my friends, as a southern man, from a young state which has no historical antecedents to boast of. It is my pride that I was born and reared in that state, which was the peer of Massachusetts, and the portrait of whose son looks down upon you from that ceiling. I glory in being a southern man, I glory in the illustrious memories and the magnificent achievements of those statesmen who, for half a century, moulded the destinies of the American Republic. That institution which separated those statesmen from your own, upon one point of domestic policy, is gone for ever. [Applause.] The enlightened mind of southern statesmen admits the death of that institution, and they stand ready to-day, by voice and by act, to abide the issues of the war in all their length and breadth. [Applause.]

I speak as a representative man of the State of Alabama, a man who has

been elected by what is known as the Conservative or Democratic party of that state; I speak as one who, when he had barely entered his majority, joined the Confederate army and fought until the close of the war; and I speak as one who, when our army surrendered at Appomatox, and the magnanimity of the Federal Government, represented by the good-hearted LINCOLN, received us as friends and brothers, determined, so help me God, to meet that magnanimity, that generosity, with the soul of a patriot and a Christian. [Great Applause.]

I have come before this National Educational Association, my friends, to offer one word of appeal in behalf of the poor South. There is a grave in every yard; there are shrines in every household; there are devastated fields; there are the faces of over-wrought labor and of poverty. With wonderful resources, we are the poorest people upon the face of the globe. A new population has been thrown upon our hands for education. More than half of the adults of the State of Alabama can not read and write. With the addition of this colored population, more than half of the voters of a state that numbers one million people can not read the ballots they place in the ballot-box. In the Gulf States there are a million and a half of illiterate voters. Out of the six million votes which will be cast at the next Presidential election, nearly one-fourth of them will be cast by men who can not read or write their names. The republican institutions, given by WASHINGTON and sealed by WEBSTER, are in the hands of a vast population utterly ignorant of the great questions of the day, which will affect the vital interests of the republic for all future time.

Nor is this illiteracy entirely confined to the black population. Through the four terrible years of war, when the cradle and the grave were robbed for soldiers, our poor white children had no means to attend even a primary school. In the four years that immediately followed the war, those years of terrible poverty, there was limited opportunity for instruction. Eight years have passed, and a generation of young men has arisen, men in whose veins runs the blood of the Saxon race, men whose ancestors stood by WASHINGTON, and whose fathers stood with WEBSTER, a large number of whom have been deprived of education. In behalf of that population I appeal, here in Faneuil Hall; I appeal by the glorious recollections of the past; I appeal by the sacred history of our fathers; I appeal by all the charity of a Christian people; I appeal to you, good people, men and women of Boston, to this National Teachers' Association, to come forward as patriots and Christians and extend the hands of fellowship to the poor, unfortunate people of my section. [Applause.]

I have asked the National Association to call upon the Congress of the United States to make a land-grant in aid of education in the Southern States. A bill to that effect passed the lower house at the last session. I ask that this Association and these good people lend their aid, not only to secure the passage of that act by the Senate, but I ask them to do more, to give us a more liberal grant; I ask them, in the name of republican institutions, to consecrate every acre of the public lands of the United States to the cause of public instruction. The millions of acres of public lands in the Southern States I know do not yield enough to pay the expenses of the land-offices. There are five millions of acres in Alabama which, if granted to the state to build up a system of public schools, would in a few years give us a system which I believe we should not be ashamed to place side by side with those of the older states.



Public instruction is a growth. My friend Mr. WHITE remarked that there had been no advance in public instruction in Massachusetts. But, if I remember correctly, he remarked, a day or two ago, that for one hundred and fifty years females were not educated in the public schools of Massachusetts. Has there been no advance there? Colored people have not been admitted into the schools of Alabama. Now they are all admitted.

I thank you for your courtesy, and I conclude by expressing the gratification which I feel in having made this visit to Boston; and I assure you that our good people in Alabama already are willing and anxious to march by your side forward in this good cause of education. [Applause.]

Mr. W. T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Schools in Missouri, was next introduced. He compared the East and the West, speaking of the former as the realization of hopes and the latter as the land of dreams and expectations, and spoke of the influence this country must wield in the future in furnishing the directive power of the world, in a great measure.

Rev. Dr. Waterston, at this point, brought the speaking to a close, wishing the members of the Association much of success and happiness in the future. A short time more was spent in social conversation and leave-takings, and one by one the company departed.

S. H. WHITE, Secretary.

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#### LETTER FROM HON. A. S. KISSELL.

Among many other letters received at the meeting in Boston was the following, which, by mistake, was not read at that time.

DES MOINES, IOWA, July 30, 1872.

Hon. E. E. WHITE, Prest. National Teachers' Association, Boston.

*Dear Sir:* . . . The educators of Europe are looking with the deepest interest upon the progress of the schools in this land of republican institutions. As you noticed in the 'Universal German Teachers' Association' that met at Hamburg, May 20, 21 and 22, 1872, one of the most earnest and most successful educators of their number, Dr. LANGE, suggested an elementary school system for the Empire of Germany similar to that in most of the states of this republic. This Dr. LANGE questioned me most minutely, before this convention, about the American system of schools, and expressed his delight at the progress of education in this country. He complimented the American nation as one of the most practical people in the world. On the Continent and in Great Britain, every where I visited, the highest encomiums were bestowed upon our system of popular education in the United States. While this is encouraging, we can still learn much from our trans-Atlantic co-workers about the true science and most skillful methods of instruction. Just such associations as the one of which you are the honored president will do much to unite educationists in the New and the Old World, as well as to awaken a professional sympathy and coöperation in the noble cause of human culture throughout the whole world. Hence, accept my most sincere regrets in not being able to attend the present National Teachers' Association, and permit me, through you, to express to the Convention my deep-felt interest in its progress and certain success.

Very respectfully,

A. S. KISSELL.

# CONSTITUTION

## OF THE

### NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

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#### PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

#### CONSTITUTION.

##### ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

##### ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

§ 1. It shall consist of four Departments: the first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; and the fourth, of Higher Instruction.

§ 2. Other Departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

##### ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

§ 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of the Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of one dollar. On his neglect to pay such fee his membership shall cease.

§ 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

§ 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life member by paying, at once, ten dollars.

## ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

§ 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counselor for each state, district, or territory, represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective departments.

§ 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Counselors, and presiding officers of their respective departments, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

§ 3. The officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen.

§ 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

§ 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the First Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro-tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

§ 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors; shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

§ 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee on Finance; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which account he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

§ 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in their power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II, and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

§ 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held in August. The place and precise time of meeting shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

§ 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

§ 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

§ 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and not less than two hours before the assembling, of the Association.

§ 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

§ 6. Each new Board shall organize on the day of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-Laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting.

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BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations; one on Honorary Members; and one on Resolutions.

2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary, shall constitute a Committee on Finance.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

# REPORT OF THE TREASURER OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, FOR THE YEARS 1871 AND 1872.

## RECEIPTS.

Membership Fees at St. Louis Meeting .....	\$670.00
Copies of Proceedings of St. Louis Meeting, sold to J. H. HOLMES .....	450.00
Membership Fees at Boston Meeting .....	534.00
Total.....	<u>\$1654.00</u>

## EXPENSES.

Paid J. L. PICKARD on account of expenses of St. Louis Meeting.....	\$49.30
Paid J. G. ADEL for reporting proceedings Cleveland Meeting.....	150.00
Paid E. E. WHITE on account of expenses of Boston Meeting.....	53.25
Paid J. H. HOLMES for publishing proceedings of St. Louis Meeting.....	811.90
Paid C. C. ROUNDS on account of printing for Normal Department.....	2.55
Printing Membership Tickets.....	5.00
Paid Prof. TYLER on account printing report.....	7.00
Postage, Expressage, and Exchange.....	1.75
Paid MUDGE & SON for printing at Boston Meeting.....	75.22
	<u>\$1155.97</u>
Balance on hand.....	\$498.03

[Signed]

*Cincinnati, Sept. 1, 1872.*

JOHN HANCOCK,  
Treasurer N. E. A.

# MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

## NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

FOR THE YEAR 1872.

---

A. Abernethy, *Des Moines, Iowa.*  
 Elroy M. Avery, *East Cleveland, Ohio.*  
 John J. Anderson, *New York City.*  
 M. Andrews, *Macomb, Ill.*  
 J. B. Atwood, *St. Albans, Me.*  
 Mrs. E. M. Avery, *East Cleveland, O.*  
 E. A. H. Allen, *New Bedford, Mass.*  
 Wm. F. Allen, *Madison, Wis.*  
 Charles Almy, Jr., *New Bedford, Mass.*  
 A. Armstrong, *Council Bluffs, Iowa.*  
 H. H. Belfield, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 Thomas D. Baird, *Baltimore, Md.*  
 Addie P. Barnes, *Lee, Me.*  
 A. L. Barber, *Washington, D.C.*  
 H. C. Baggerley, *Corunna, Mich.*  
 James H. Binford, *Richmond, Va.*  
 Miss H. C. Bates, *Eastport, Me.*  
 W. A. Breckenridge, *Worth, N. J.*  
 C. F. R. Bellows, *Ypsilanti, Mich.*  
 Edward Brooks, *Millersville, Pa.*  
 Anson Ballard, *Appleton, Wis.*  
 G. K. Bartholomew, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 W. H. Baker, *Savannah, Ga.*  
 Newton Bateman, *Springfield, Ill.*  
 A. G. Boyden, *Bridgewater, Mass.*  
 Geo. P. Beard, *Warren, Ohio.*  
 Henry B. \_\_\_\_\_, *Wilmington, Del.*  
 Miss J. \_\_\_\_\_, *\_\_\_\_\_*  
 Miss I. \_\_\_\_\_, *\_\_\_\_\_*  
 O. H. \_\_\_\_\_, *\_\_\_\_\_*

Kate Butts, *New Haven, Ct.*  
 Sarah O. Babcock, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 J. S. Brown, *Lynden Centre, Vt.*  
 Stacy Baxter, *13 Tremont Row, Boston, Mass.*  
 D. H. Brown, *Boston, Mass.*  
 E. B. Bridgman, *East Hampton, Mass.*  
 J. G. Bassett, *Bridgewater, Mass.*  
 H. P. Bosson, *Bloomington, Md.*  
 Anna C. Brackett, *117 East Thirty-Sixth, St., N. Y.*  
 L. L. Camp, *New Haven, Ct.*  
 Jennie Cleaver, *Davenport, Ia.*  
 G. A. Carnahan, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 W. R. Creery, *Baltimore, Md.*  
 J. S. Cilley, *Brandon, Vt.*  
 E. H. Cook, *Columbus, Ohio.*  
 M. Colby, *White River Junction, Vt.*  
 E. W. Coy, *Normal, Ill.*  
 D. P. Crosby, *Nashua, N. H.*  
 Alex. Chaplain, *Easton, Md.*  
 Mrs. Mary P. Colburn, *Boston, Mass.*  
 N. A. Calkins, *New York City.*  
 J. T. Clark, *South Orange, N. J.*  
 L. B. Corey, *Dobb's Ferry, N. Y.*  
 George L. Chandler, *Mankato, Minn.*  
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 W. E. Crosby, *Davenport, Ia.*  
 Henry L. Chase, *Lynn, Mass.*  
 James Coles, *Rye, N. Y.*  
 Isaac N. Carlton, *New Britain, Ct.*

- Miss H. A. Cummings, *Kirksville, Mo.*  
 C. Goodwin Clark, *South Boston, Mass.*  
 Miss Jennie Clements, *Detroit, Mich.*  
 W. Page Conant, *Ferguson's Station, St. Louis, Mo.*  
 Warren T. Copeland, *Cambridge, Mass.*  
 Helen B. Coffin, *Castine, Me.*  
 Mrs. Albina Cilley, *Brandon, Vt.*  
 P. A. Chadbourne, *Williamstown, Mass.*  
 C. S. Colby, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 J. E. Dow, *Peoria, Ill.*  
 Judah Dana, *Rutland, Vt.*  
 W. B. Dwight, *New Britain, Ct.*  
 Adolph Douai, *Newark, N. J.*  
 A. E. Dolbear, *Bethany, West Va.*  
 T. S. Dodge, *Columbia, South Car.*  
 Geo. M. Dews, *Columbus, Ga.*  
 L. Dunton, *Boston, Mass.*  
 James A. Dupee, *Walpole, Mass.*  
 J. H. Davis, *East Somerville, Mass.*  
 Miss S. L. Dyer, *Lawrence, Kansas.*  
 M. G. Daniell, *Boston Highlands, Mass.*  
 Carrie Davis, *West Chester, Pa.*  
 Mary Darlington, *West Chester, Pa.*  
 Miss Bettie A. Dalton, *Cleveland, O.*  
 J. W. Dickinson, *Westfield, Mass.*  
 J. Estabrook, *Ypsilanti, Mich.*  
 Charles W. Eliot, *Cambridge, Mass.*  
 Adolph Eiswald, *Savannah, Ga.*  
 J. M. Edwards, *Cincinnati, O.*  
 Mary E. Emerson, *Ottumwa, Ia.*  
 John Eaton, *Washington, D. C.*  
 Thomas Emerson, *Newport, Mass.*  
 Clara A. Forbes, *South Paris, Me.*  
 E. P. Frost, *Peoria, Ill.*  
 Henry A. Farwell, *Norwalk, O.*  
 Rev. H. T. Fuller, *St. Johnsbury, Vt.*  
 Thomas H. Fuller, *Scotland, Ct.*  
 Annie E. Freeman, *Orono, Me.*  
 Lewis L. Freeman, *Cincinnati, O.*  
 Mrs. Anna Freeman, " "  
 G. T. Fletcher, *Castine, Me.*  
 John H. French, *Burlington, Vt.*  
 Miss Kate S. French, *New Brunswick, New Jersey.*  
 Lizzie French, *New Brunswick, N. J.*  
 Henry Freeman, *Rockford, Ill.*  
 Ellen G. Fisher, *Dorchester, Mass.*  
 Ellen Field, *Brandon, Vt.*  
 Kate Franklin, *Cleveland, O.*  
 Mary F. French, *Pittsfield, N. H.*  
 Joseph Gill, *New Haven, Ct.*  
 J. C. Greenough, *Providence, R. I.*  
 J. M. Gregory, *Champaign, Ill.*  
 N. P. Gates, *Fayetteville, Ark.*  
 J. C. Gilman, *St. Joseph, Mo.*  
 Miss Emma M. Goldthwaite, *Ne Britain, Ct.*  
 Jas. H. Holmes, *No. 11 Vandewater Street, N. Y.*  
 Geo. Howland, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 Joseph Hodgson, *Montgomery, Ala.*  
 W. D. Henkle, *Salem, Ohio.*  
 E. W. Hall, *Macon City, Mo.*  
 John Hancock, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 Henrietta E. Hasslock, *Nashville, Ten.*  
 W. N. Hailman, *Louisville, Ky.*  
 D. B. Hagar, *Salem, Mass.*  
 Mrs. C. S. Hicks, *83 James St., Syracuse, N. Y.*  
 Margaret Hicks, *83 James St., Syracuse, New York.*  
 J. H. Hoose, *Cortland, N. Y.*  
 Mrs. J. H. Hoose, *Cortland, N. Y.*  
 Rev. Chas. Hammond, *Monson, Mass.*  
 Thomas W. Harvey, *Columbus, O.*  
 M. D. L. Hayes, *235 Ryerson St., Brooklyn, New York.*  
 Mrs. W. L. Hardy, *Springfield, Mo.*  
 Clara A. Hinkley, *Livermore Falls, Me.*  
 W. T. Harris, *St. Louis, Mo.*  
 Geo. D. Hersey, *Westerley, R. I.*  
 Miss Myra Hodge, *Detroit, Mich.*  
 J. W. Hoyt, *Madison, Wis.*  
 E. B. Hale, *Cambridge, Mass.*  
 E. C. Hewett, *Normal, Ill.*  
 H. F. Howard, *Newton Centre, Mass.*  
 Lucy Hammett, *Newport, Mass.*  
 Katie E. Harrington, *Louisville, Ky.*  
 Mary E. Hughes, *Castine, Me.*  
 E. T. Heisler, *Wyandotte, Kan.*  
 C. L. Hotze, *Cleveland, Ohio.*  
 W. P. Heston, *1307 Washington Av., St. Louis, Mo.*

W. Johnson, *Augusta, Me.*  
 Lewis H. Jones, *Terre Haute, Ind.*  
 D. W. Jones, *Boston, Mass.*  
 W. M. Jelliffe, *Brooklyn, N. Y.*  
 James Jhonnot, *Warrensburg, Mo.*  
 John Kraus, *Washington, D. C.*  
 Dr. Samuel Kepler, *Towson town, Md.*  
 A. P. Kelsey, *Clinton, N. Y.*  
 A. S. Kissell, *Des Moines, Ia.*  
 Susie Leach, *Northampton, Mass.*  
 N. W. Littlefield, *Newport, R. I.*  
 Dr. M. R. Levenson, *Thingarten St.,  
 Hanover, N. Germany.*  
 N. T. Lupton, *Tuscaloosa, Ala.*  
 A. M. Leonard, *Boston, Mass.*  
 Annie Lewis, *West Chester, Pa.*  
 Hannah Llewellyn, *1303 N. Broad St.,  
 Philadelphia, Pa.*  
 G. T. Littlefield, *Charlestown, Mass.*  
 Carrie W. Moore, *Haverhill, Mass.*  
 Lizzie G. Melcher, *Freeport, Me.*  
 A. McMillan, *Utica, N. Y.*  
 Jesse McIntire, *St. Johns, Mich.*  
 Geo. G. McKay, *Cumberland, Md.*  
 J. B. Merwin, *710 Chestnut St., St.  
 Louis, Mo.*  
 A. P. Marble, *Worcester, Mass.*  
 Mrs. A. C. Martin, *Otis Place, Boston,  
 Mass.*  
 H. H. Morgan, *St. Louis, Mo.*  
 Miss E. T. Moore, *Concord, N. H.*  
 Alonzo Meserve, *Neponset, Boston,  
 Mass.*  
 A. D. Mayo, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 E. C. McClintock, *New York City.*  
 Eiss Emma Marwood, *Washington,  
 D. C.*  
 A. S. Monson, *Hannibal, Mo.*  
 T. A. March, *Easton, Pa.*  
 R. R. Morse, *Elmira, N. Y.*  
 Jessie McIntyre, *Rockport, Mass.*  
 A. L. McMillan, *Danville, Vt.*  
 Miss H. N. Morris, *15 Bible House,  
 New York.*  
 Henrietta Noa, *St. Louis, Mo.*  
 M. A. Newell, *Baltimore, Md.*  
 B. G. Northrop, *New Haven, Ct.*

Wallace Norris, *229 Fifth Avenue, New  
 York.*  
 B. C. Noyes, *Dayton, Ohio.*  
 Leopold Noa, *2739 Morgan St., St. Louis,  
 Missouri.*  
 E. Olney, *Ann Arbor, Mich.*  
 Mary E. Oliver, *53 Green St., Lynn, Mass.*  
 W. F. Phelps, *Winona, Minn.*  
 J. L. Pickard, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 Mrs. R. H. Plaisted, *Goshen, N. Y.*  
 John W. Page, *Frederick, Md.*  
 Henry B. Pierce, *New Brunswick, N. J.*  
 C. A. Page, *Fryeburg, Me.*  
 Ariel Parish, *New Haven, Ct.*  
 Flora T. Parsons, *Rochester, N. Y.*  
 W. W. Paine, *Northfield, Minn.*  
 John B. Peaslee, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 G. R. Prowell, *Wooster, Ohio.*  
 W. S. Perry, *Ann Arbor, Mich.*  
 Elizabeth P. Peabody, *Cambridge, Mass.*  
 J. J. Riley, *Hartsville, Ind.*  
 W. H. Russell, *Moline, Ill.*  
 Mrs. W. H. Russell, *Moline, Ill.*  
 Amy J. Roberts, *1303 North Broad St.,  
 Philadelphia, Pa.*  
 Z. Richards, *Washington, D. C.*  
 C. C. Rounds, *Farmington, Me.*  
 Mrs. C. C. Rounds, *Farmington, Me.*  
 Pauline Rulison, *Cleves, Ohio.*  
 G. H. Ricker, *North Scituate, R. I.*  
 Emma Rockwell, *Lincoln, Neb.*  
 Dr. Daniel Reed, *Columbia, Mo.*  
 E. R. Stountz, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*  
 J. A. Sewall, *Normal, Ill.*  
 Ann E. Sewall, *Normal, Ill.*  
 W. H. Smith, *New Milford, Ct.*  
 Alice M. Smith, *New Milford, Ct.*  
 A. R. Sabin, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 J. W. Stetson, *East Summer, Me.*  
 S. G. Stevens, *Morgantown, W. Va.*  
 J. W. Scribner, *Hartsville, Ind.*  
 Wm. H. Saiman, *Washington, D. C.*  
 M. Belle Spence, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 J. W. Simonds, *Franklin, N. H.*  
 Mrs. M. A. Stone, *New Milford, Ct.*  
 John Swett, *San Francisco, Cal.*  
 A. P. Stone, *Portland, Me.*  
 Miss Ella S. Smith, *New Britain, Ct.*  
 M. C. Stebbins, *Springfield, Mass.*  
 T. B. Stockwell, *Providence, R. I.*



- Wm. M. Scribner, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 Agnes Strang, *Monmouth, Ill.*  
 A. Sanford, *Albany, N. Y.*  
 C. B. Stetson, *Lewiston, Me.*  
 Edward Shippen, *Philadelphia, Pa.*  
 Geo. H. Snelling, *Union Club, Boston, Mass.*  
 F. M. Tyler, *Galesburg, Ill.*  
 John Tetlow, *New Bedford, Mass.*  
 Eli T. Tappan, *Gambier, Ohio.*  
 Mrs. L. L. Tappan, *Gambier, Ohio.*  
 Thomas Tash, *Lewiston, Me.*  
 Franklin J. Tenney, *Eastman, Wis.*  
 Emily A. Thayer, *New Milford, Ct.*  
 H. S. Tarbell, *East Saginaw, Mich.*  
 L. O. Truesdell, *Flint, Mich.*  
 John E. Thompson, *Washington, D. C.*  
 Mrs. Sarah J. S. Tompkins, *128 W. 17th St., New-York City.*  
 Serena J. Tompkins, *128 W. 17th St., New-York City.*  
 Henry M. Tyler, *Galesburg, Ill.*  
 J. H. Thompson, *Des Moines, Ia.*  
 Jonathan Tenney, *Owego, N. Y.*  
 Franklin Taylor, *West Chester, Pa.*  
 B. F. Tweed, *Charlestown, Mass.*  
 J. A. Thompson, *Boston, Mass.*  
 Charles H. Verrill, *Mansfield, Pa.*  
 Georgianna VanAkin, *61 Park St., New-York City.*  
 R. Woodbury, *Farmington, Me.*  
 L. F. Ward, *Northampton, Mass.*  
 Jason Waters, *West Sutton, Mass.*  
 M. E. Wadsworth, *Mazomanie, Wis.*  
 Mary L. Wells, *Chesterville, Me.*  
 R. G. Williams, *Castleton, Vt.*  
 H. B. Wilson, *St. Paul, Minn.*  
 E. E. White, *Columbus, Ohio.*  
 F. B. Williams, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 D. A. Wallace, *Monmouth, Ill.*  
 Mrs. D. S. Wiley, *Elmwood, Ill.*  
 J. O. Wilson, *Washington, D. C.*  
 N. B. Webster, *Norfolk, Va.*  
 O. S. Williams, *Auburn, Me.*  
 Solon F. Whitney, *Cambridge, Mass.*  
 Emily M. Warren, *Lowell, Mass.*  
 Miss Belle M. Westfall, *Dayton, Ohio.*  
 N. H. Whittemore, *Norwich, Ct.*  
 J. P. Wickersham, *Harrisburg, Pa.*  
 Samuel Willard, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 Sarah R. Walker, *Dighton, Mass.*  
 Henry Whitall, *512 Arch St., Philadelphia, Pa.*  
 S. H. White, *Peoria, Ill.*  
 Mrs. S. H. White, *Peoria, Ill.*  
 Harriet J. Willard, *Chicago, Ill.*  
 Isaac Walker, *Ware, Mass.*  
 Mrs. Dr. A. F. Wate, *Newton, Mass.*  
 R. C. Waterston, *Boston, Mass.*  
 Joseph White, *Boston, Mass.*  
 A. E. Winship, *Reading, Mass.*  
 Sarah Wilbur, *Chelsea, Mass.*  
 G. A. Walton, *Westfield, Mass.*  
 Susie A. Wilson, *Cleveland, Ohio.*  
 J. E. Young, *West Chester, N. Y.*  
 Ed. J. Young, *Cambridge, Mass.*

## LIFE MEMBER, 1872.

E. M. Stone, *Providence, Rhode Island.*

## ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

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TUESDAY, AUGUST 6th, 1872.

At half past two o'clock, P.M., the Department of Elementary Instruction was called to order by the President, Miss D. A. LATHROP, of Cincinnati, Ohio, who said: We have a great deal of work to do, and no time to spare in idle talk. We want the ripest thoughts of those who have had experience, and we want them presented in the shortest, most definite and most fitting fashion. One mistake made in educational meetings is that of for ever talking over the same things. Precisely the same questions are propounded in precisely the same terms, and are discussed in precisely the same way, and decided in precisely the same manner, without a dissenting voice. It seems to me it is about time to stop and see if we have any bottom, any educational basis; whether two thousand years, more or less, in the study of educational matters, has not brought out some principles that we may put at the foundation of our educational philosophy. I do not know of any such now; I do not know a principle that is so settled but that is brought up and boxed about and talked over in educational meetings. Is it not time that we try to fix something and bring out some principle behind which we can stand. Then, and not till then, shall we be able to build up an educational structure. Is it not the prerogative of this Association to fix upon and settle this, in stead of discussing minor points?

This department is the place where this work can be most efficiently done. We are nearer the springs of human action, and we want to begin at the beginning. We are where we can act upon the mind in its beginning. It is not necessary to make any comparison between our work and that of the other departments. We understand that our work is just as important and just as honorable; that the work of the primary school teacher is just as noble as that in any other department of education.

I have been watching for a week or two past a little bird that has been feeding its young; and I learned a lesson. The little bird flitted back and forth incessantly without giving itself any rest from dawn till dark. I was astonished to see it work with such assiduity, as it would come and drop some little insect for its young, and then dart away again; and I wondered whether that was the work of birds, whether it was not to sing in stead of doing this hard work. And then I remembered that the bird was doing the work, not simply to sustain the life of its own little birds, but was doing it for you and for me and for all organized animal life; and because the little bird did just this,

we are able to work and do work. Break this chain in animal life, and the whole goes to pieces. We do not see the end of our work. There is no use in talking about the dignity of our work. Perhaps we do not know any more of this than the little bird. So that the dignity of our work is simply that it is in God's plan; and it makes no difference in what department we work, as we do not know the limitations at all.

W. P. HESTON, of St. Louis, was chosen to fill the vacancy occasioned by the absence of the Secretary.

The President appointed J. B. MERWIN, of Missouri, member of the Publishing Committee for this department.

The first paper presented was by N. A. CALKINS, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City, on

#### OBJECTIVE TEACHING: ITS VALUE, AND THE EXTENT OF ITS ADAPTATION TO SCHOOL INSTRUCTION.

The laws of human development, the order in which the faculties of children unfold the subjects and means most suitable to educe mental activity, and the manner in which the mind gains knowledge, are among the most important things to be regarded by teachers.

Those who arrange the plans and direct the methods for the development and early culture of the minds of children need to possess a thorough knowledge of their natural powers and tendencies, and also of the manner in which these may be influenced by external agencies; for upon the thoroughness of the adaptation of methods to conditions will depend the success of the development and the extent of the culture. The natural development of mind begins with its activity through the organs of sense, and its progress in the acquisition of knowledge corresponds to the facility which it attains in gaining ideas through the influence of surrounding objects. It must therefore be apparent that the amount of knowledge obtained will depend to a great extent upon the clearness of the ideas derived through the senses. If these chief gateways of learning be but partially opened, the elements of ideas must pass through them with difficulty, and they may become much distorted by the passage; but with these windows and doors to the mind wide open, all other obstacles to mental acquisition may be readily overcome, for clearness of perception leads to completeness of knowledge.

The various facts which children gather from carefully noticing the objects and movements around them assume the form of knowledge so fast as their chief relations are recognized and properly grouped or classified. Knowledge consists in classified facts and relations. A little knowledge embraces but a few classified facts; much knowledge includes many facts, and wider relations and conditions. The facility and strength of the powers of classification depend largely upon the early influences, in this direction, by those with whom children are surrounded.

If early led to notice every thing about them with care, and to understand the uses and relations of objects and their movements, children will soon form

habits of careful observation and classification that will lead to accurate and extensive knowledge. Such habits are a permanent guaranty of success in after years.

We can not add a new faculty to the mind by any process of teaching, nor change the natural mode of its development; but we can surround it with new influences adapted to awaken its slumbering forces, and thus increase its powers of activity.

These new influences may consist of the modes of training children during the first years of school instruction. The manner of learning, as well as the facts learned, develops the mind and gives it habits that influence all its subsequent attainments. It becomes, therefore, a matter of no small moment what methods of teaching shall be employed, since upon these must depend the habits of learning that will control all the future career of the pupils.

Let us briefly examine the two great classes of methods of teaching which embrace the various modes of instruction usually found in our schools.

One class comprises those methods which are founded upon the idea that all useful knowledge is treasured up in books, and that the best way to obtain it is to memorize what the books contain.

The other class includes the methods known by the terms kindergarten, object lessons, objective teaching, oral instruction, experiments, etc.

The first class of methods requires that the preliminary steps of instruction shall consist in teaching the elements of written language. These elements, being wholly artificial, possess no natural relation to the subjects of which the written language treats; neither do they contain any innate attraction for children.

During all the time spent in learning these elements the children are prevented from exercising their senses in a natural manner. These methods of teaching are unlike the modes of learning which nature presents to the young; hence the proper development of their minds is retarded, rather than hastened.

No habits of carefully noticing every thing around them are formed by the unnatural means used by the teacher. No taste for the observation of plants, leaves and flowers, with their varied forms and beautifully-tinted hues, is cultivated. No love for studying the structure, movements and interesting habits of animals is gratified. No knowledge of objects, of their properties and uses, or of the common events of life, is presented to satisfy the cravings of young minds for information about what they daily see around them. The pleasant ways in which God fitted children to go in the pursuit of knowledge are shunned, while they are led in artificial and uninteresting by-ways till they care but little whither they are going, and know less of why they are conducted over the toilsome and cheerless route. If their feet lag, they are hastened on by telling them that they are ascending the "hill of science," that glorious views will greet them when the summit is attained. Again and again their weary steps falter while gazing at cloud-capped summits far above them, and the toilers wonder why they are still urged onward by their guides to be enshrouded in an impenetrable mist.

Children want to see with their own eyes the beautiful forms, and colors, and movements of every thing about them; to hear the sweet songs of birds and the sounds of babbling brooks; to touch and taste and smell, that they may

know the various properties and qualities of objects; but their eyes and ears and hands are confined within the walls of a school-room, from which all the attractions of nature are excluded. Books are made to take the place of form and colors and objects and motions and sounds and tastes. The real things are kept out of sight, and artificial symbols are substituted in their stead. In place of beholding the charms of nature face to face, pupils are told to study what others say about them.

Observe a class of pupils trying to memorize the table of distance before they have been trained to distinguish differences in lengths; or the table of weight when they have no definite conception of relative lightness and heaviness; or the tables of liquid and dry measure without associating them with the common measures in daily use at home. Hear these same pupils repeat the definitions of capes and islands without knowing that those points of land which they have so often seen projecting into the river or pond are real capes or that those verdure-crowned portions of rocks and earth in the middle of the little stream near their own homes are true islands.

Behold these students poring over their text-books on botany, trying to remember which parts of the flower are called stamens, pistils, petals, corolla, peduncle. Notice the vacant expression on the face of the lad who is reciting his lesson in zoölogy, as he tries to remember the difference between rodent and carnivora, or pachyderms and marsupials. Then contrast this lad's expression with the enthusiasm of one who is comparing the teeth of the cat and dog with those of mice and squirrels, as he discovers that the teeth of his pets are fitted for tearing and eating flesh, while those of the mouse and squirrel are like chisels, and fitted for obtaining food by cutting open hard shells of nuts. No wonder that these pupils hail with unbounded joy the holiday that allows them to run in field and forest, and gratify those tastes which God implanted in their natures so deeply that they well up through all the debilitating and stultifying methods of the school-room.

Let us now turn to the other class of methods. Observe a child for the first five years of its life, and consider the vast amount of information which it acquires in that period, also remember that during all this time the artificial methods of teaching from books are unknown to the rapid learner. Watch the little one as it recognizes those whom it daily sees around it, and learns to distinguish the forms, colors, sounds and names and uses of the various animals about its home. Observe how it learns to understand and use a difficult language, and then point out, if you can, during the period when teachers are trying to make him learn from books, an equal amount of mental attainments in twice five years. Why this difference in the progress of development between the period when nature is the chief instructor, and that when the child enters the school-room and teachers attempt to guide it in the single path of learning from books. Is it not because the mode in which the young child learns is a natural one and in accordance with the laws of mental development, while the methods employed in the other cases are unnatural, and attempt to force the mind to do that for which it is not yet fitted?

Compare the means for training hands, fingers, eyes and ears in the plays of the Kindergarten with the ways by which the child learns before it is five years of age, and notice the adaptation of these first steps in systematic instru-

tion to nature's modes of teaching. Observe how the perceptive powers are awakened and cultivated, how dexterity is imparted to the fingers, how ideas of size, shape, color, order and neatness are developed, how these methods of training are adapted to those characteristics of child-nature which we see manifested in its love of activity, and its desire to do what it sees others doing.

Now follow the child as he enters the Primary School, where his powers of observation are developed by object-lessons. See how the instruction deals with familiar things as a means for leading him to understand other objects about which he already knows but little. Observe the manner in which the first steps are taken in learning his own language in its printed form. In stead of dealing with the elements of form alone—the letters,—the child is at once introduced to the word as a sign or name of some common object. This is first learned as a whole word, and then followed by other words in the same manner. In addition to learning the words as wholes, by their form, the pupils are taught to recognize the sounds as heard in the spoken word, then to know the characters or letters that make the written word. But during all this process of learning, the real things and acts and qualities and thoughts represented by the words learned are kept most prominently before the pupil's mind. And in all subsequent stages of learning to read the pupils are required to regard thoughts, ideas and facts with more attention than words; also to express the thoughts with easy conversational tones of voice. This child's instruction in number commences by training him to count objects, then to recognize and make the figures which stand for the numbers of things counted. When he is ready to commence addition, at first he is trained in familiarity with the results of combined numbers until he knows instantly that 7 and 5, when added, will always give a 2 in unit's place; that 9 and 7 always give a 6, whether in 17 and 9, or 29 and 7, or 77 and 9. By this means the common fault of combining numbers by counting is readily overcome.

Thus in every department of arithmetic, by the methods of objective teaching, the pupils are first trained by the use of objects, familiar experiences and blackboard illustrations to understand those principles that pertain to the matter under consideration, and subsequently they are directed to study the same subject from text-books; afterward rules, recitations, reviews and examinations appropriately follow. Each subject of school instruction may be presented in a similar manner.

Let it be distinctly understood that it is far from our purpose to claim that either objective teaching or oral instruction alone, or both together, should displace all use of text-books in school. The true office of these methods of teaching is to prepare pupils for the proper use of books. School life is far too short to make it possible for each individual pupil to acquire one-tenth of the most important facts direct from nature, or from a teacher's lips, which the world's cheerful observers have collected, even during the present century, and classified into the various sciences now recorded in our text-books. Besides, children need to be trained to habits of learning from books, that with their aid they can continue the study of nature and science after the teacher's guidance has ceased. Moreover, we do not understand objective teaching to mean that the method of instruction shall always employ objects, nor that it shall exclude text-books; rather that it should so adapt training exercises to whatever subject may be in-

produced as to fit the pupils for learning by the aid of systematic observation, oral instruction, apparatus and books, all combined, in a most thorough manner.

Object-teaching ought to precede all use of books, and be continued in such a way as to join in a life-long union the study of nature and art without and with books; each contributing its due proportion to the combined stock of knowledge.

Those who carefully observe the general progress of education, and note the tendencies of the times in relation thereto, are well aware that each year shows an increased attention to the study of nature, through what are commonly known as the natural sciences. After long years of persistent memorizing of rules and definitions in grammar, which are seldom used in after life, as the correct use of language comes chiefly from habit rather than rules; and after months spent in learning the names of rivers and capes, and mountains and towns, without understanding their relations to the world, its people and productions, it has come to be admitted that there are other subjects which have just as intimate relations to the affairs of daily life, and which are far more interesting and easily understood by children, that ought to and may easily receive more attention. Not only are children deeply interested in natural objects—the leaves, flowers, fruits, birds, quadrupeds and insects—which they see around them, but it has been found that attention to these objects furnishes the best means for developing their observing powers, and storing their minds with facts that will prove useful during all subsequent life. By early attention to such natural subjects, in a proper manner, children become more thoroughly prepared to profit by instruction in language, geography, grammar, etc.

Living, moving forms possess the greatest attractions for children. The life and motions exhibited in the animal world, corresponding with the activity of childhood, place animals among the earliest and most interesting objects that awaken the curiosity of the young; hence they furnish materials admirably adapted to cultivating their perceptive faculties, and forming habits of attentive observation.

One of the chief difficulties in the way of giving profitable attention to natural history in our common schools, especially in the department of zoölogy, has been the fact that a sufficient number and variety of animals could not be seen alive, nor stuffed specimens provided to such an extent as to afford an opportunity for systematic instruction in accordance with that method which AGASSIZ assures us is the true way to obtain knowledge from nature, viz., observation and comparison.

But I trust the time is not far distant when correct representations of birds, and quadrupeds, and reptiles, and insects, and plants, arranged with the view of facilitating observation and comparison, at least so far as relates to the most important of those characteristics by which animals are classified and their habits learned, will be prepared in such a way as to render the study of natural history, in its elementary stages, as practical and easy as that of geography is now.

In conclusion, I will briefly indicate the proper extent of objective teaching.

Let the instructive amusements of the kindergarten receive children first from their mother's arms; let the training exercises of objective teaching meet

them as they leave the threshold of home for school, and lead them in the pleasant ways of knowledge, opening their eyes to behold the beauties of nature, and developing their powers of learning while they are taking the elementary steps in our written language, and in the science of numbers, in the qualities and properties of objects, and in the habits of animals and plants. Then oral instruction, uniting with objective training, will conduct them in simple paths of science, and direct their steps until tastes and habits and judgment may safely assume their guardianship in subsequent pursuits of knowledge from nature and books.

Objective instruction can most successfully open the portals of science and guide the early steps of those who enter therein. It will prepare pupils for learning readily from all sources, and lead them to seek books from a desire to know what others have discovered in nature. By it the elementary steps in knowledge can be taken most nearly as the child would learn the same subject from objects with only nature for its guide. It adapts the subject and the manner of instruction to the mental conditions of pupils in all their varying aspects. No text-book can successfully meet these different conditions; only the living teacher can so present the matter of instruction as to harmonize in time and manner with their needs.

In the various stages of school instruction, whatever may be the subject, let the teacher prepare the pupils for studying it by introducing it orally, and, whenever necessary, illustrating its chief points so that these shall be clearly understood by them; then assign the same subject as a lesson to be studied in the text-book, and afterwards recited by them and further explained by the teacher. By this means, habits of giving more attention to facts and ideas, to the mere forms of language, will be formed, and the student's progress in knowledge will be thorough, practical, and rapid.

*To know* is a great attainment. *To know how to do* is a high art. The first comprises knowledge; the second, the ability to use it. To secure the great attainment is the first duty of the teacher. To master the high art is of equal importance; it makes the first valuable, and insures success in its use.

It is strangely curious that the doing of the same thing may be both easy and difficult—easy when done in the right way; difficult when done in the wrong way. Success attends the doing in the right way, failure is sure to follow the doing in the wrong way. Let teachers remember their first duty in regard to methods of instruction—to know which ones are in harmony with nature; also take due care in so attending to the second as to master the high art of using these methods in the best manner, and a crown of success shall be their reward.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Mr. Z. Richards*, late Superintendent of Public Schools in Washington, opened the discussion as follows:

There are two reasons why I am encouraged to enter upon the discussion of this somewhat hackneyed subject.

*First*, there are strong indications that the real merits and importance of this subject are neither properly understood nor appreciated by very many teachers and school-officers.



*Second*, there are many who believe that it is high time there should be a radical change in the present modes of organizing, teaching and conducting the primary or lowest grades of schools.

Let us consider the *first* proposition for a short time.

I have found many school-officers and teachers who are decidedly opposed as they say, to "object teaching." They seem to think they have good reasons for their opposition, such as that it is *unphilosophical, unnatural and unpractical*; and that it has been proved to be *unsuccessful*.

But if in either of these respects it has been found *wanting*, it has been owing to the ignorance and stupidity of its advocates, or the superficial and inadequate examination into its true merits.

It may be safely asserted that those persons who do not understand and appreciate the "objective mode of teaching" do not understand the real nature of teaching.

What, then, is teaching? Others may differ from me; but the best answer I can give is, that it consists in imparting knowledge directly to others, or in helping them to acquire it themselves. *Teaching* is some times considered the same as *learning*, or making scholars *study*. We some times hear teachers talk about *learning their scholars*, when they do not mean *knowing them*, as well they might, for they ought to *know them better*. Teaching is not learning; neither is *learning* the same as *studying*. We *learn*, it is true, by *studying*, and also by *being taught*. Children, *at first*, must learn by being taught what they need to know; and teaching must be continued until the pupil can acquire knowledge by study, and by personal effort. Indeed, children must be taught *how to study*, and how to make proper efforts to acquire knowledge; and this is the work of the teacher.

Again, we often hear it said that teachers should make their pupils *study*; but it is a great mistake to suppose that untaught children are capable of studying. They must learn by being taught, before they will be capable of studying. They can neither study, nor gain knowledge from books, nor from observation, until they have learned how to do it; and they must learn how by being taught.

A child can neither gain knowledge from books nor from nature, until he has learned how to read and understand both books and nature herself.

Here, again, we may see the work of the teacher. How *absurd*, then, is the practice of requiring untaught children to *study lessons*, when they *can not study*. They may be required to *memorize lessons*, which is neither studying nor necessarily learning. But the utility of memorizing is indeed doubtful; in fact, the usual practice of memorizing is positively injurious. Is it not, then, evident that children must learn at first chiefly by being taught? and do not the foregoing thoughts exhibit the real nature of the work of teaching?

Now I am prepared to assert and to prove that the only true method of teaching is the "objective method."

Knowledge is made up of impressions upon the mind; and those impressions are made almost exclusively by external objects upon the physical senses; and we may say they are derived from external sources: 1st, from material objects; 2d, from the expressed thoughts of others; and 3d, from the results of our own thoughts.

Though an idea may be derived from matter, it by no means follows that an idea is material; neither that it is independent of internal consciousness, any more than is an idea derived from spirit, from abstract thought, or from the relation of results. Ideas or thoughts can be communicated to others; and words or names are used chiefly as the representatives of ideas. The work of the teacher is to communicate ideas, and then to present the proper words to represent these ideas. This is teaching, which every child must have, in order to learn. It comes not by *study*.

Herein consists the philosophy and nature of the *objective method* of teaching. Suppose we desire to communicate what may be properly called abstract ideas. Let us take impenetrability for instance. We wish the pupil to get for the first time the idea that "two bodies can not occupy the same space at the same time." The common and almost universal method of making pupils get this idea is to make them commit the words to memory. This is not teaching. It is the worst kind of cramming. But let the teacher procure two balls, each of which will exactly fill the same cup, and, after putting each ball into the cup in sight of the pupil, try to put both into it at the same time; or fill the cup with water, and then let the pupil see that all the water is displaced by putting in one of the balls. The pupil receives the idea, which may be then given in the above words. This idea then becomes knowledge, which has been derived from two or three material objects, and which was not derived from memorizing the definition, and never could have been, without an *objective demonstration*. The idea is abstract, and is not derived from the seeing either of the balls or of the cup, but from the use which is made of them. This is the *objective method* of teaching, and in this case is really the only rational method. But in a similar manner a knowledge of almost any abstract principle, law or quality may be acquired by teaching. Take one more illustration. A child on seeing an apple may say it is sour or sweet; or, on looking at it, he may say it is round, or red; or, on feeling it, that it is hard or soft, etc. His ideas of these qualities of the apple are not derived from the apple itself, but from comparing its various qualities with the corresponding qualities of another apple. The idea of sourness or sweetness is gained by comparing the different sensations produced upon the organs of taste.

The above illustrations are enough for my present purpose; and hence, I conclude that nearly, if not quite, all of the knowledge of any practical use to us is derived from objects, or from external sources.

We all have within us a conscience, which teaches us that there is a *right* and a *wrong*; but to know what particular thing is right or wrong, we must for the most part resort to proofs *outside* of ourselves. Such proofs may be styled *objective proofs*, and they constitute the "*objective method*."

As it can be thus shown that almost all knowledge is acquired upon the "*objective method*," I think the conclusion is inevitable that all *teaching* should be conducted upon the "*objective method*"; and that there is no true teaching without it.

The time allotted to me, on this occasion, will not permit me to elaborate my second proposition, which appears to me quite as important as the first; for if the radical change needed in the present modes of organizing, teaching and conducting our primary schools could be realized, we should need no other

proof or argument to convince every reasonable mind of the utility and correctness of the "objective method."

In order to correct the present artificial, hot-house, cramming method of teaching, and to secure a philosophical and natural method, we need, in the *first place*, differently constructed and differently equipped school-houses.

In the *second place*, what is now some times called the play-room should be constructed with reference to *physical* and *industrial* training.

In the *third place*, we need a different kind of school-books, adapted to a natural and a more reasonable method of teaching.

In the *fourth place*, we need the best trained, and most practically experienced teachers in our most elementary schools. All our teachers should have a different kind of normal training from any now given in any of our normal schools.

The improvements alluded to, we believe, will sooner or later be exemplified.

A. Bronson Alcott said: We are met at the outset of our professional lives with this question: Why do not our children have the same interest in the lessons which we give them in the school-room that they do in the objects in the museums? Forty years ago, he said, I tried what could be done in the City of Boston with children, taking my pick from the Boston families. I made the room pleasant by hanging portraits on the walls, and other objects of interest were introduced. I had the support of the most cultivated people in the city. I said, the children themselves are the text-books, and if I can draw a smile, and can make the school attractive, I have succeeded. I said, Christianity, art, beauty, all are in the soul of the child, and the art of the teacher consists in drawing it out. I had many years of the most delightful experience, and if I have learned any thing, I learned it from the children, they were my professors.

At the end of four years the little ones went home, and they talked to their fathers and mothers about all sorts of things that children had not been accustomed to talk about. They asked papa and mamma, and the teacher, and the minister, questions that they could not answer; and they spoke most beautiful English without having been drilled very largely in what we call grammar. They spoke English because English was spoken at home, and, I trust, in the school-room. In addition to myself, the teachers were MARGARET FULLER and ELIZABETH PEABODY, who has introduced, and is introducing, the Kindergarten into this country.

Hon. D. N. Camp, of New Britain, Conn., said: I have been very much interested in the paper presented, and the suggestions that have followed. The question for us to consider is, How can we correct the mistakes of two thousand years? If all is wrong, what can we do to set it right? The only thing that I would suggest is that the child itself should be the teacher. I came to this city by way of that beautiful city of cottages at Martha's Vineyard, and it may be called a city of colleges. There are several hundred children there now, and they are learning faster perhaps than at any time while they have attended school. They are up early in the morning, and they are interested in the objects around them, and they are learning, studying from these objects, and they are studying character. I think we shall do well to sit at the feet of such pro-

fessors, as they are called, and at the feet of the Great Teacher, and remember that on the one side is the child, with all its possibilities, and on the other side is all the material for meeting these possibilities, and the learning to bring them together. The nearer we come to God's plan, whether we call it the plan of the school or of the family, the nearer we shall come to the complete standard of education which shall open up to us all the "good time coming."

*David Beatty, Esq.*, of Troy, N. Y., inquired if there were not many leading educators who have been remarkably successful teachers, who were not in any sense accustomed to the use of object lessons. Are there not teachers of this class, to whom you look with almost unbounded respect, so far as their success is concerned, who have turned out pupils second to none?

*Mr. Richards.* I have found very few such teachers.

*Mr. Beatty* referred to Mrs. EMMA WILLARD, whom he considered a leading educator in more respects than one, and whose leading characteristic was just the thing condemned by Mr. RICHARDS. She was a leading educator, and had a right to put a high estimate upon her powers as shown by the results of her training. I have attended examinations of the Troy Female Seminary, at which the young ladies recited page after page of French Grammar, History, Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON's works, and works of the like nature, with such accuracy that, in following the text, one could scarcely find the slightest variation. And yet I have not the slightest sympathy with the memorizing system. Nevertheless, there is a leading educator, who, with a sublime faith in her own system, tried and carried it forward to a successful termination. The degree of faith which one has in the method pursued by him has much to do with the success of that method. A gentleman in Northern New York has talked up the object system. His faith in it is something wonderful; and his great success is fully as much due to that faith as to the real merits of the system itself. No successful teacher, however, ignores the distinctive characteristics of objective teaching; it is simply a question of system, of quantity, of extent.

*Mr. Richards.* Every one who knows how the young ladies in Mrs. WILLARD's school were trained day after day outside of the school-room knows that they received object-lessons. She was an objective teacher, practically, and daily, especially in the latter part of her life. Discarding the idea that young ladies were to die of consumption, she taught them to open a window on the north side of the house and to breathe the pure air. That was her object teaching. She was one of nature's teachers in her practical teaching. And that was what gave her power, and character to her young ladies as teachers.

*Mr. Beatty.* But she always did carry out the idea of memorizing. And some of the professors on Troy Hill, witnessing one of the remarkable performances of her seminary, required all the work in the preparatory department of their school to be upon that plan; and they had some of the worst-conditioned and most badly-prepared boys I ever heard of.

*M. Alcott.* Mrs. WILLARD always taught her scholars to get the ideas which the words represented. I think this should always be done, so that the moment an object is presented to a child, or that he has a sensation, he shall have the very word that the object or thought expresses, and the vocabulary should

correspond to the object or sensation expressed. The first thing for a teacher to learn when going into a school is the extent of the vocabulary of the children. The trouble is we give so many names for things we do not know.

*Mr. Clarke*, of Maine, said that none should forget they were born children. It is important to learn that it is a child whom we are seeking to teach. The A B C is the first thing to be taught; and then, when he has learned the multiplication-table, let him learn more; do not try to make him an old man while he is a child. God Almighty made us all men and women in an infant form and let all teachers remember, in whatever condition we find the child, it is a child we are teaching, not a man or a woman.

Prof. M. A. NEWELL, Principal of State Normal School, Baltimore, Md., then read the following paper:

#### ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

By "English grammar in elementary schools," I mean so much of the practical and theoretical knowledge of the English language as can be taught to children from seven to fourteen years of age by such teachers as are found in the average common schools of the country. Such instruction in grammar as may be given in colleges, academies and high schools will not here be taken into account, my object being to consider the means of teaching English in the common schools and by the ordinary teachers.

It is hardly necessary to repeat what has been asserted by so many intelligent observers and is conceded by all competent judges, that, so far as this class of pupils is concerned, the traditional methods of teaching "grammar" have totally failed. Some things pupils no doubt learn by the "gerund-grinding" process to which they are subjected; but the "art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety" is not one of their acquisitions. Nay, it not unfrequently happens that their command of language is in the inverse ratio of their power to analyze and parse sentences. To say the least, there is no necessary connection between a knowledge of technical grammar and an ability to use language for the practical purposes of life.

Now, if the school-drill in penmanship did not make the pupils better business writers, if their lessons in arithmetic did not make them better accountants, if their practice in elocution did not make them better readers, we would infer without hesitation either that the subjects did not properly belong to common-school studies, or that the methods of presenting them were not suited to the age and intellectual capacity of the learners. But it is abundantly evident that the study of formal grammar, as it is usually taught in common schools, does not make, or help to make, a young person a correct speaker or a graceful writer; and we are therefore compelled to admit that teachers have made a mistake either in the subject or their mode of teaching it.

It would be useless to recommend any change to those teachers who are perfectly satisfied with the current methods of teaching English grammar, who cause their scholars to learn the definitions that they may be able to parse, and then teach them to parse that they may have practice on the definitions; who are content with laying what they think is a good foundation without caring to

inquire whether any thing is ever to be built thereon or not. If there be any such teachers, let them consult their own consciousness and say whether their own knowledge of English grammar has given them the power to speak and write the English language correctly. Has not its influence been almost entirely negative, enabling them to avoid a few blunders, but giving them no positive power? So far from being helped to express their ideas by means of what they know of grammar, have they not felt that their sensitiveness about grammatical propriety has been an actual check and hindrance to them, while many of those who have no such scruples use their native language both fluently and correctly? Had JOHN BUNYAN been taught to parse, in all probability the Pilgrim's Progress never would have been written. Had SHAKESPEARE spent five years in analyzing and "diagraming" sentences, his plays would have been as polished and as cold, as faultless and as lifeless, as those of RACINE.

Let such teachers also bear in mind that English grammar as a common-school study is an invention of the present century, and almost of the present generation; that all the old masters of our literature were absolutely ignorant of grammatical formulas and rules.

"They struck with Nature's hammer,  
Not caring for the *clish-ma-clack*  
They keep about their grammar!"

Let them remember that among modern writers of distinction not one in fifty ever studied English grammar as such, and not one in a hundred could parse one of his own sentences. Let them reflect that while the writings of second-rate authors yield themselves easily to the tricks of the grammarian, and can be parsed, analyzed and "diagramed" without difficulty, we find it almost impossible to confine the expressions of idiomatic writers of the first class within the straight-jacket of grammatical formulas. Finally let them ask themselves whether it be possible, in the nature of the things, to learn the right use of a living language by means of such a thing as a "Grammar." You might just as well think to solve the mystery of life by the dissection of a dead body; you might as reasonably expect to learn to dance by studying anatomical plates and the laws of mechanics; you might as well hope to become a practical musician by reading "TYNDALL on Sound" or a painter by studying the "Theory of Colors" as attempt to acquire a practical knowledge of the English language by the study of LINDLEY MURRAY or GOULD BLOWN.

The fact is that Grammar (so far as common schools are concerned) is an art and not a science. The *science* of grammar is as far beyond the ken of a school-boy as is the "Principia of Newton" or the "Philosophy of the Unconditioned." And, being an art, it must be learned in the beginning, as all other arts are learned, by the practice of it, not by theorizing about it. We learn to draw by drawing, we learn to paint by painting, we learn to dance by dancing, and we must learn "the art of speaking and writing the English language" by writing and speaking it, not by parsing and analyzing it. Let me not be misunderstood. There comes a time when the artist who wishes to rise above mediocrity must study the theory of his art; and the more extensive and profound his theoretic knowledge, the greater will be his practical skill. But to the young artist in language this time does not come in the elementary school; and any attempt to

invert the order of Nature by basing practice on theory, in stead of evolving theory out of practice, must result, as it has resulted, in a lamentable failure.

It remains now briefly to indicate, without attempting to elaborate or define, a method of teaching English which is not only based on sound philosophical principles, but has received the sanction of the foremost of practical educators.

In the first place, we must discard the text-book. Not only is there none in existence suitable to the purpose, but none can possibly be written. The elements of an art must be acquired by imitation and practice, not by memorizing definitions and conforming to formal rules. It is possible that a hand-book for the teacher's use might be prepared; but to a teacher of average ability such a help would be superfluous, and to those of lower grade it would be useless.

The learning of English begins in the cradle. It ceases only with life. That part which is learned in school should begin the first day the child goes to school, and it should never be interrupted.

1. In the *first* year a pupil should learn how to use correctly the words which he already knows. This involves two things: 1st, correct pronunciation; 2d, correct grammatical forms and combinations. Correct pronunciation will be taught, (a) by correcting all errors in pronunciation as soon as they are heard; (b) by daily drill in elementary sounds; (c) by daily practice in repeating sentences after the teacher's dictation. In this way and at this stage we may get rid of many vulgarisms and provincialisms in pronunciation which, at a later stage, would be uncontrollable. Correct grammatical forms and combinations will be taught by causing the pupil to substitute the right for the wrong expression whenever the latter is used. The ungrammatical forms in ordinary daily use among school-boys and school-girls do not number more than a score; but if they amount to a hundred, they must disappear before the discipline of daily correction, administered steadily for several successive years.

2. In the *second* year, besides continuing the work of the first year, pupils may begin to learn the forms of written language. The exercise most suitable for this purpose is simply the copying of the lessons of the reading-book on a slate, or blackboard, or paper. From this they will learn spelling, punctuation, the use of capitals, and the form of the sentence and paragraph. They will also acquire a considerable number of new words and forms of expression; for the language of even the simplest books differs in some degree from the vernacular of school-children.

3. In the third year children may begin to learn how to convert spoken language into written language. The appropriate exercise for this purpose is writing, from dictation, first, words; then, phrases; and lastly, sentences and paragraphs.

4. In the fourth year the learner may begin to study words, so as to learn their power and to discriminate between words of similar signification. The exercises of the preceding years being kept up in the advanced Readers, so far as is practicable, pupils may be required at this stage to change some words in their reading-lessons into other words of like meaning. As no two words in English are precise equivalents, attention should be called to the difference between the original word and the word substituted for it. This exercise may

easily be made auxiliary to the study of technical grammar. For example, the exercise of one week may be to find synonyms for the nouns in a lesson. (There is no need of using the word *noun*; the teacher can name the words which he wishes to have changed.) Next week the work may be on adjectives; next week, on verbs; and so on. In this way pupils will learn to form groups of words for themselves according to their common qualities, and will be prepared for, and delighted with, the formal classification when it is given to them.

5. In the fifth year a beginning may be made in composition proper. The following steps will be found easy and natural after the training which the scholars are supposed to have had already: (a) writing passages which have been committed to memory; (b) writing brief conversations that have actually taken place between teacher and pupils or between two pupils; (c) writing the substance of a short anecdote read or related by the teacher; (d) writing an account of any incident which the pupils have actually witnessed. In this year, also, if the teacher think proper, he may give oral lessons in grammar, embracing the classification of words; the ideas of person, number, gender, case, voice, mood, tense; the inflections of nouns, pronouns and verbs; a few of the most common rules of syntax; and the analysis of simple sentences.

6. In the sixth year the pupils may be taught to write letters and business forms, and brief essays on very simple subjects. If it is thought desirable to teach grammar, parsing and analysis in the usual way (and for pupils whose course is to extend through several years to come it is extremely desirable), now is the time to begin. The experience which they have acquired in the practical use of language will make the theoretical study both easy and pleasant.

The subject is far from being exhausted. I have not aimed at completeness even in that portion of it which has been brought before you. If the trees which I have marked here and there on my way through the forest shall help to guide other pioneers on the same route, and shall lead finally to making of a permanent highway, my object will have been accomplished.

#### DISCUSSION.

*W. E. Crosby*, Superintendent of Schools, Davenport, Iowa, said there were so many points in the paper read, that he would have preferred to postpone the discussion, and to have more time to consider some of the questions presented. He thought the speaker, who had so earnestly presented his subject, would have a great many disciples, and very few followers.

In the discussion, I have been reminded of one that took place long ago, in the old contest between those who taught the art of expression and those who taught something deeper and more profound. *PROTAGORAS*, the chief of sophists, taught that it was necessary, in order to perfect the art of discourse, to combine theory with practice. I shall not enter into the question so far as to inquire, and to answer why we have failed to teach the art of discourse. I admit the statement; and what is true of the English language, I apprehend, has been true of all languages, so that it may be laid down as a principle that there have been failures to a great degree, throughout all time, in this matter of teaching the art of discourse. Why is this? Is it because the subject of lan-



guage is less important than any other? Is it because it is not a science and is not capable of being presented as a science to the mind, in its due order; or is it rather because of the method? Have we failed to accomplish results for any reason than simply that we have have not reached, as yet, the right method? This seems to be the true reason. And allow me to make this statement, that it is a necessary law of the mind, in all its growth and in all its accomplishments, that practice and theory shall go together. It is just as necessary to the little child as it is to the philosopher. The mind contains within itself all science; it contains the laws which give order, and whatever the mind may hold. If we have failed to impart the science of language, and the use with it, we have failed because we have not understood the laws of the mind.

Mr. CROSBY here gave some incidents in his own experience as a teacher, to show how, in his opinion, the study of language is fitted to discipline the mind. Language is the medium of thought, *par excellence*; it is suggestive of thought; it is suggestive of the mind itself. Close inquiry into language, into its relations, turns the mind in upon itself, and to understand itself; and it was in this that SOCRATES and PLATO confounded the Sophists.

We have but recently learned to distinguish between language lessons and grammar as a science; and to-day we have reached the point represented by the author of the paper just read. He would discard books, below the high school, in teaching grammar. I believe we should combine practice with theory; science develops itself when knowledge is advanced in the proper order.

I have noticed this fact, that scientific men, men who devote themselves to science especially, are better public speakers, speak more correctly, than linguists themselves. It is because they have in their minds the subjects that are constantly suggestive of thought; for scientific men of all classes constantly arrange their topics.

We have tried the method of teaching language without a text-book; but the syllabus of language lessons prepared for our schools has grown up into a book, and that has been used in our schools for three years. The plan of this book is almost precisely that suggested by the author of the paper read, and we are well satisfied with the results.

Mr. E. M. Avery, of Ohio, agreed that theory should be combined with practice from the first. But the use of good language is rather a matter of habit than of theory. A child may learn to express himself with propriety without knowing a rule of grammar. If surrounded by those who speak the English language in its purity, he will of necessity speak pure English. But, on the other hand, if surrounded by those who speak incorrectly, he will speak incorrectly. If it is necessary with the smaller children to give them the theory of the English language, I wish to know how it is to be done.

Mr. Crosby. The early instruction as to the science, as to the terms, does not begin until the age of twelve. The early lessons are upon the strictly philosophical objective method.

W. B. Dwight, Assistant Principal of the Normal School at New Britain, Connecticut, expressed the fullest sympathy with a large part of the able paper read. He thought, however, that practical instruction should be given to the younger children, and that alone. No rule should be given to them. The

rules can not be given to a young child so that they will be understood. Many children come to school instructed in language; but generally they need to have bad habits corrected. Young children should be taught by example, not by rule. A child is better able to learn a correct use of words when young than when older.

Mr. DWIGHT thought the paper read ignored the study of the science of grammar too much. He could hardly agree to the statement that a knowledge of the science of grammar can be a clog to the use of good language. The use of diagrams, too, he thought beneficial.

The Department adjourned.

### WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 7th, 1872.

The Department met at 2½ o'clock, and the first exercise was the reading of the following paper, by W. N. HAILMANN, of Louisville, Ky., on the

#### ADAPTATION OF FROEBEL'S SYSTEM OF EDUCATION TO AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS.

It is useless to insist here upon the influence which local circumstances exert upon the relative development and value of educational measures. The earnest, thinking educators whom I am addressing have felt the influence and have been puzzled by it many a time in their experience. The method of discipline that made a very good boy of John has not only utterly failed, but produced the very opposite, with Henry. The educational measure that created quite an enthusiasm for schools in one section emptied them in another. What is a blessing in Russia is a curse in America. What, in Germany, leads one people to freedom, may, in the United States, lead another people to slavery.

Systems of education are means to an end, and must, consequently, adapt themselves to the objects in view, and to the difficulties to be overcome. Ever-varying circumstances require frequent modifications of the theoretical direction; for no theory can take into consideration the manifold difficulties that beset practice.

We all know that even PESTALOZZI'S method had to undergo many a modification, often appearing as sins against his principles, in order to adapt itself to the wants of our schools, to the peculiarities of our teachers and pupils; and the failure to introduce the method in some localities is, perhaps, due as much to its relative insufficiencies of adaptation as to the insufficiencies of the teachers.

Yet it is our duty to look around us diligently, and to as great distances in time and space as our powers may permit, for appliances used elsewhere in the attainment of educational ends; to study closely whatever we see; to separate the essential from the accessory; and to inquire carefully into the value of these essentials, and into their adaptability to our locality and to our aims. Thus we shall be enabled to gather the good, nay, the best, from our colleagues

in all times and in all civilized portions of the earth, and to render their best thoughts and best endeavors tributary to our work.

There is, surely, no doubt that, since PESTALOZZI, Switzerland and Germany have done more to establish a *science* of pedagogy than all the other countries conjointly; that they have done more careful, philosophical and systematic thinking on the subject of education than all the world besides. It behooves us, then, to follow with diligent care the developments of the science and art of education in those countries, and to study them in their bearing and relations to our peculiar institutions.

That, among the German framers of pedagogic science and art, FROEBEL occupies one of the foremost places is well known to you, and it can not be my object to discuss either his claims to our gratitude or his system in full. Indeed, this has been done quite satisfactorily, both in practical illustration and in essays upon the subject, by Mrs. PLOEDTERLL, Mrs. KRIEGER, Miss PEABODY, Mr. JOHN KRAUS, Dr. DOUAI, and other earnest laborers in the same field among you. I can only direct your attention once more, and with all the warmth of which I am capable, to a revolution in educational science that is fast transforming the entire educational machinery of Europe, in spite of the opposition of individuals, professions, and classes that lease their power upon the ignorance and dependence of the masses—the great invention of FROEBEL, an invention as important to education as that of the steam-engine and of the telegraph to manufactures, commerce, and the arts of peace in general. I can only act the part of an ignited shred of timber to the inflammable material that you are to supply and to fan into a mighty conflagration, before which incompetence and deception in the most important concern of social economy are to be swept into oblivion. I can only furnish a sort of preface to the great work with which you are to bless coming generations.

Allow me, then, in the first place, sketching all along in rapid outline, to cull from the chaotic mass of ideas left by FROEBEL that which seems to underlie all his efforts, retaining, of course, only those things which have reference to the education of man purely as a human being, and eschewing all that veils his labors in the shape of concessions to political, sectarian and social abnormities of the nation for which he wrote and worked.

FROEBEL looks upon the young human being as an organism whose development is subject to the ordinary organic laws. Material for growth is received, digested, assimilated; the periodical powers grow, and the organism expands. This tendency and the power of growth the young human being has at birth, inheriting them from the organisms that have preceded it and given it existence. The material for expansion it obtains from the surroundings through the medium of the senses; it seeks material, brings itself into the most favorable circumstance for obtaining it through the medium of the motor system, which also enables it to furnish material for growth to kindred organisms.

The laws of growth are the same as in other organisms. First and foremost there is the law of continuity. Starting from one point, the development must progress steadily, continuously; and all intermission, all strict limits, severing contrasts are injurious—nay, fatal. Hence, education must in the beginning be *passive*, and only at a later period, when self-consciousness has appeared, it can become *active*. Again, only the *material* can come from without, the *growth*

itself must come from within. Educators can offer material properly arranged and prepared, but growth can take place only in the child, and education can not hasten or retard it directly. Hence, too, the *intensive* powers precede the *extensive* in the order of development. The organism must have reached a certain strength before the latter can make themselves felt. The physical, sensual, emotional elements begin visible growth before the motor, intellectual, discriminating elements. The latter grow *upon* the former. Still, they, too, exist from the beginning and show themselves first as instinct of motion, then as instinct of play, and ultimately as instinct of productive activity. We must, therefore, never lose sight of them, never neglect them, for fear of sinning against the laws of harmony in organic development. It would be a great error to direct our attention at first exclusively to physical and sensual development and to disregard the motor and intellectual elements of the organism. For, although the former are the first to manifest themselves, the latent development of the latter must keep pace, if, indeed, a good organism is the aim. It would lead to the most disastrous results to lose sight of the discriminating elements in attending to the emotional that precede the others in perceptible development. In short, education must from the very beginning, from the first breath of the child, keep the extensive powers in view, and exercise them as fully as their comparatively low condition and apparently slow growth will permit. If this is not done, the educator will injure in stead of benefiting, and will send into the world (or let loose upon the world) barren and even parasitical organisms, men and women who produce nothing and who subsist upon the substance of others, and, since man finds the highest enjoyment in the exercise of his extensive powers, men and women as incapable of happiness as they are inefficient for usefulness. The truth of these remarks finds a sad abundance of illustrations and corroborations in a great number of schools in our country, and they explain, too, the startling fact that self-made men are so often superior to those upon whom the most elaborate educational appliances have been expended.

Again, FROEBEL looks upon the child from the very beginning in its two-fold character as a whole and as a part, as an individual and as a member of the family, of the state, of the race. In the first relation, life is *receptive* and aims at enjoyment, independence, happiness; in the second relation, it is *productive* and aims at the dispensation of happiness and usefulness. But these phases are so intimately interlaced that one can not be attained without the other. Only in dispensing happiness the human being renders himself truly happy; and his own happiness will always react as usefulness upon the surroundings. Hence, education, which is to teach the science and art of life, must fit man for usefulness and happiness; and that is the best system of education which gives the greatest capacity for both. FROEBEL aims to evolve\* all the powers of the young human being in such a way that, as an individual, he may *attain* the fullest happiness, and that, as a member of society, he may *dispense* the greatest possible amount of happiness—be as useful as possible. These two phases of existence are to be so adjusted that they never interfere with each other. This he attains, in the first place, by developing individuality, independence of character, to the greatest possible extent; for he is most happy, as well as most

\* In manuscript, 'involve'.

useful, who is least dependent. In the second place, the young human being is taught from the very beginning that all its surroundings are, similar to itself, both part and whole, and that it can increase its own efficiency for usefulness and happiness by uniting with others. This is done successively and continuously in the family, in the Kindergarten, in school, in life.

These are the leading principles that guided FROEBEL in his educational labors. To seek an approach to them was the aim of his remarkably active life. For this he wrote essay upon essay, composed he mothers' and cosseting songs, formed, or attempted to form, educational associations of mothers, insisted upon the establishment of nurses' seminaries, so that the very first education of the child might be conducted in accordance with these principles. Partly to assist the mother, but more particularly with a view of developing and guiding the social powers of the child, he invented the Kindergarten. All the ingenious appliances of the Kindergarten are directed to these ends—the development of an energetic individuality, of a conscious coöperation with others for the accomplishment of objects beyond the power of one individual, the growth of a correct appreciation and an irresistible love of the beautiful—hence of truth and virtue. For the great and constant stress laid upon independent self-activity, the training of the senses and of the muscles, in mastering all material, organic and inorganic, at the disposal of man, the earnest and lively exercise of inventiveness, the unceasing care to produce a conscious appreciation of form and color, in all possible combinations, for this the songs and plays, that receive a meaning only when they (the whole little society) take part in them, and yet so arranged that each little participant feels the importance and necessity of his peculiar individual effort. For this, too, the many reforms and modifications suggested for all departments of elementary instruction.

Many persons, indeed, suppose that FROEBEL's labors were confined to the Kindergarten, although this is but one of the features of his system of education. If he seemed to attach more importance to this, it was merely because it was the first and, therefore, for the time, the weightiest step in the great reform which he inaugurated. It is our duty to see not only that the fruits of his labors be perpetuated, but to continue his efforts in regenerating the entire system of human education and to render it efficient in accordance with the principles announced before.

Before entering upon the question What locality is best adapted to develop the system of FROEBEL to its highest point? I must beg you to sum up what has been said of the system so far. Education must look upon the child both as an individual and as a member of society. Education must treat the child as an organism, subject to the ordinary laws of organic development. Education must aim at the development of completed organisms, in which the receptive and the productive powers, the intensive and the extensive, are fully harmonized. Education must aim at the development of human beings in whom efficiency for usefulness and happiness is developed to the highest degree. This is only possible if the individuality of each is fully evolved and a sound social feeling cultivated. To accomplish this, it is necessary that education, from earliest infancy, be directed by those who are fully conscious of the aims and who have full control of the means.

Where, now, can these things be done most efficiently? We answer

promptly: In a community in which the human being as such occupies the highest rank; in which it is only necessary to be a human being in order to be a citizen, the equal before the law of all other human beings; in which there is no excellence\* ; [in which anti]quoted prejudices in favor of birth, occupation, sect or sex have been abrogated; in which the individual derives† his or her value from the character and extent of his or her individuality: in a country, again, in which a family, too, is based upon similar considerations, acknowledging no authority but that derived from greater knowledge, better purposes, increased efficiency.

Says FROEBEL, in an article written in 1836 and discussing emigration as one of the modes to attain his purposes: "We must emigrate to the country that offers all the conditions for the existence of genuine human family life, which, then, renders the development of pure humanity possible, where such a life is at least sought and can freely develop. : . . All these conditions and hopes we find in *America*, and for Germans more especially in *NORTH AMERICA*, and here again in the *UNITED STATES*."

The Baroness MARENHOLZ-BULOW, too, in a letter written lately to JOHN KRAUS, of Washington, expresses similar views. She writes: "America, where in truth a new world is forming, which possesses all the creative powers of a young state, where the individual enjoys full liberty, and no restraint prevents him from carrying out his own designs in his own way, we look upon as the field for our richest harvest. Yes, the United States of America offer, more than any other country upon the earth, the conditions necessary for the development of a sound, natural, rational system of education similar to the one planned by FROEBEL." It is a matter of doubt whether this fact redounds more to our disgrace or to our honor; certain it is that, while we have reason to congratulate ourselves upon these favorable conditions, we have equal reason to regret the fact that, in spite of these conditions, we are still distinguished by the least rational, the least natural, the most empirical and most artificial system of education, if, indeed, what we do at our schools deserves the name of educational system.

In politics, every man, with restrictions that apply equally to all, is a free and equal member of the community; in religion, the consciousness of every one is left free and untrammelled; socially, he occupies the highest rank whose individuality has reached the highest point of successful development; in a family the equality of man and woman is so fully recognized, the day can not be far distant when woman will, in all relations of life, enjoy the rights and privileges which prejudices based upon the slavish or brutish instinct of past ages still deny her. FROEBEL asks that early education be placed in the hands of woman, whose peculiarities and instincts fit her more for this than is the case with man; and in this respect, too, our country is far ahead of others. Here, more than elsewhere, family education is intrusted to woman; here, more than elsewhere, the adaptation of females to the calling of teacher, particularly in elementary education, is recognized. This may be due to conditions entitled

\*The manuscript is incomplete at this point: the printer has supplied in brackets what he supposes to be the beginning of the next clause, leaving the reader to fill out for himself what should immediately follow the word 'excellence'.

†In manuscript this word is 'divides'.

to little respect, in stead of being the result of an honest conviction of her superiority; but it is the case, and it is our business to supply that conviction. It may be a lucky chance; but wisdom should impel us to make the best of lucky chances.

I hope that I shall not be seriously accused of painting in too bright colors; for I am aware of the many faults by which our people disgrace our institutions, faults which, perhaps, are more hideous with us than elsewhere, because, from the very freedom of our institutions, from the very scope given to individual development among us, they have a better opportunity for growth. But for the same reason those faults and abnormities are of less moment with us, are less to be feared, have their remedy supplied in the very circumstance that favored their growth; provided we, to whom so much of the welfare of future generations is intrusted, do our duty.

FROEBEL in his efforts was compelled to struggle against authorities that feared loss of power from his success, against aristocracies that were jealous of the advancement of the masses, against the petrified, self-sufficient pedantry of the great majority of the teachers, against the indifference and sluggishness of the masses themselves. Not so among us. Our government has no despotic privilege to defend, we have no aristocracy to feel jealous of an inferior class, our people are wide-awake and take a deep interest in educational matters, our teachers seem eager for reform and progress. What, then, is to keep us from making the great stride?

If we who are assembled exert our whole power in full energy and wisdom, absolutely nothing can keep us from it. We appreciate the importance of the interests intrusted to our charge; the great aims to be attained by our work stand clearly before our minds; we are endowed with the requisite knowledge and, I trust, with the requisite enthusiasm; we enjoy the respect of the profession and the confidence of the people; we exert, directly and indirectly, a determining influence upon the affairs of our land; there is in our institutions nothing to prevent full success, for all obstacles imported from other countries will crumble before a united and well-directed effort on our part. Yet caution is necessary: the general and local needs of the people are to be determined; the several obstacles must be clearly defined; the system itself, for whose introduction I plead, must be carefully studied and adapted to those wants; for, as we know it, it contains much that is useless for us and lacks many things that we must have. And to all this the work of one individual or of several individuals working separately is inadequate. Even the discussion which I invite here, interesting as it may prove, will accomplish little good, if it is not followed by organized and united effort in reconnoitering the field in all its details and in determining a well-digested plan of action.

This is, then, what I propose, and to which I invite your discussion and solicit your approval: Let a committee be appointed, consisting of clear-headed, true-souled men and women from all parts of the land, from city and country, from manufacturing, commercial and agricultural districts, whose duty it shall be to collect material that may enable us to become clearly conscious of the wants of our people; let the same committee examine the system of FROEBEL and adapt it to those wants, rejecting what is useless to us and supplying what we do not find in it; and, ultimately, let this committee propose at our next meet-

ing a definite plan of action; how we can reach and influence the mother to teach her the proper training of her child, how and in what form Kindergarten can be most successfully established, and to what extent FROEBEL's ideas may be made to modify elementary education in our schools.

The conviction that such a course is the only one that will insure desirable\* and permanent success has been forced upon me by the difficulties that I encountered on all sides in my individual studies and experiments on the subject in question; it has been forced upon me by the experience made with the "object-teaching" method, which, in spite of the earnest endeavors of so many competent men working separately, has failed of success in so many places, and in others has subsided into the very mechanism which it was intended to drive from our schools; it has been forced upon me by the limited experience of Kindergartens in our country, which, according to statements that I owe to Mr. JOHN KRAUS, Mrs. PLOEDTERLL, and others, in many cases do more harm than good, in consequence of time-serving selfishness and incompetence on the part of their directors.

A committee similar to the one proposed will enable us to choose the safest and quickest road to success, and will save us the mortification of seeing brought into disrepute an educational measure which, properly applied, must incalculably enhance the happiness and usefulness of the next generations, and which will teach progress to march at the bidding of education, in stead of struggling on in spite of it. Such a committee will deliver us from the weak imitations of Kindergartens invented for other wants than ours, and will, by the suggestion of healthy reform at the very root of all education—in the home, Kindergarten, and elementary schools,—enable us to occupy the foremost rank in the educational world, the rank which properly belongs to the only country whose institutions are based purely upon humanity, and upon pure humanity.

In accordance with these remarks, I offer to your consideration the following:

*Resolved*, that a committee of seven be appointed to inquire into the form in which FROEBEL's principles of education may be most efficiently applied to the educational wants of our country, and to report at our next annual meeting.

#### DISCUSSION.

The discussion of this paper was opened by Dr. *Adolph Douai*, of New York, who thought that among the peculiar wants of our educational system there was one which was more easily satisfied by the Kindergarten system than any other. That want is the acquisition of more than one language at the same time. There are more languages spoken in this country than in any other, and the ability to use more than one may be of great advantage; and the Kindergarten system provides the means of teaching two languages at once. The speaker referred to his own experience in this direction, in which he had found it perfectly easy to teach two languages at the same time; since it was as easy to learn the names of objects in two as in one. He had tried this method for twelve years with perfect satisfaction. He was, in fact, driven to the method at first from dire necessity, there being both English-speaking children and German in his school.

\* Durable(?)



*The President.* I know that all earnest workers in elementary schools are interested in Kindergarten movements, and all will be glad to hear Miss PEABODY.

*Miss E. P. Peabody* then explained some of the processes which finally led FROEBEL to the adoption of the Kindergarten system. He did not come to this until the latter part of his life. He thought the most important thing to be learned was the child who was to be educated. He constantly found that his pupils had much to unlearn. His principle was to learn how to use the blind force of the youngest children, which they are constantly exerting upon something; and, as they can not come to us, we must go to them and find out what they are about. He thought the best thing to do was to give the child something to play with, and something that has the most simple form. It needs something to grasp, so as to experience the sense of power. Only one thing should be placed before the eye of the child at a time. FROEBEL used first a red ball, and associated with it the word *red*. He then gave something as a contrast; then something between the two. Thus he went through the primary colors, and so on. Next, he presented forms, especially regular forms, a ball and cup being presented and the difference pointed out. This gives great pleasure to the child, to discriminate and see the differences. Thus the work goes on, the objects being frequently changed, including strips of paper of different colors to be woven together, and so on, making slight advances continually.

*Hon. B. G. Northrop* added his testimony to the excellence of the system, that it kept children employed and cultivated the senses.

*Mr. A. Bronson Alcott* also spoke of the value of the system in its tendency to give children power over their own movements. The only thing to be guarded against in the system, he thought, is the tendency to systematize too much. The child should be allowed to think it is playing all the time.

*Hon. Henry Barnard* suggested that this question need not be confined to the system of FROEBEL, but should embrace all infant culture; and that is not as new as it is represented. The subject of infant culture should contain something broader than the system of any one person.

The following resolution, introduced by Mr. HAILMANN, was adopted:

*"Resolved,* That a committee of seven be appointed to inquire into the form in which FROEBEL's principles of education may be most efficiently applied to the educational wants of our country, and to report at our next annual meeting."

The following names were subsequently announced as such a committee: J. W. DICKINSON, Mass.; W. N. HAILMANN, Ky.; W. T. HARRIS, Mo.; JOHN KRAUS, D.C.; JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio; W. H. BAKER, Ga.; Dr. A. DOUAI, N.Y.

The next exercise had for its subject "School Architecture and School Furniture," and was conducted by Prof. AMBROSE P. KELSEY, of Clinton, N.Y.

*Prof. Kelsey* referred to plans and elevations illustrating his views concerning the construction of country school-houses, and made many suggestions in detail.

The President announced the following Committee to Nominate Officers for

this Department for the ensuing year: Mr. Z. RICHARDS, D.C.; G. A. WALTON, Mass.; J. E. DOW, Ill.; Miss H. N. MORRIS, New York; Miss B. A. DALTON, Ohio.

This committee nominated the following: For President—N. A. CALKINS, N.Y.; for Vice-President—Miss HARRIET N. MORRIS, N.Y.; for Secretary—AUGUSTA M. HAWLEY, Ohio.

The report was adopted and the officers were elected.

The Department then adjourned.

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#### THURSDAY—AUGUST 8th, 1872.

The first exercise was the following paper on "Physical Science in Elementary Schools," by Prof. C. O. THOMPSON, Principal of the Worcester Free Institute of Industrial Science.

#### THE SCOPE AND METHOD OF PHYSICAL SCIENCE IN THE COMMON SCHOOL.

The subject assigned me is "The extent and method of physical science in the common school": that is, "How much shall be taught and how shall the subject be presented?" The terms physical science and common school may mean so much or so little, according as a person speaks accurately or loosely, that some definition of terms is indispensable to an intelligent treatment of the subject.

Science professes to exhibit what is actually known or may be learned in the forms of exact observation, precise definition, fixed terminology, classified arrangement and rational explanation. This is President PORTER's definition, and no better has been given.

Physics, or physical science, is a generic term for the sciences of nature. It includes psychology, though not the illogical doctrine that whatever obeys its laws is material. This is its broad etymological sense. In this sense it includes the *physical sciences* and the *natural-history sciences*—a distinction demanded alike by increasing knowledge and the necessities of speech. The latter are mineralogy, zoölogy and botany, with all the allied sciences that accompany or flow from them. They deal primarily with the objective *forms* of nature, but lead inevitably to a consideration of the laws by which those forms are determined. Some would exclude mineralogy from this class, and restrict the term natural-history science to the forms of mineral and vegetable life. But, since the crystalline force is at least "the mute prophecy of life," minerals which largely obey this force may properly enough be studied side by side with animals and plants.

The physical sciences are those which treat of forces—their origin, correlation and effects—with the methods of measuring and applying them. The sources and uses of mechanical energy, including the laws of heat, light and electricity; the properties of prime motors; the calculations of astronomy; the

determination of the amount and effect of friction and the direction and amount of thrust and strain; and, in general, the knowing and the ways of knowing how any force acts to produce any effect, *without loss of force*, these constitute the subject-matter of the physical sciences. Let us not be misunderstood. The term *physical science*, in its broad sense, is generic, and has no synonym. The term *physical sciences*, denotes those sciences which undertake to investigate the *phenomena of nature* and the laws according to which they take place. The natural-history sciences deal with the *objects of nature* found on or in the earth, and undertake to name and classify them. Any one of the natural-history sciences, as botany, when it seeks the laws of structure and arrangement, may become a physical science. These discriminations are somewhat arbitrary, but they must be kept carefully in mind in order to a statement of our subject. The natural-history sciences are of observation; the physical are mathematical, and useless otherwise.

The science of chemistry occupies a unique position. Its purpose is to give an account of the changes in condition that matter undergoes, and to show that in these changes of form there is no loss of material. In pursuing this end it calls to its aid nearly all the other sciences.

Turn now to the school. Here are two sorts, the "high school" and "schools below the grade of the high school." The relation between the two follows a pretty uniform law. The lower schools are poor when the high school is poor—good when it is good. In it the expert can feel the pulse of the school-system. The *scope* of the high school bears the same relation as its quality to that of the lower. But the scope of the high school varies as widely as the average cultivation and intelligence of communities vary. Hence, we must restrict ourselves to the best possible high school, and, by consequence, the best possible lower schools. These schools we will venture to include in the term the *common school*; because in the minds of a vast majority of people it has that meaning. It appears that less than one-tenth of all public-school pupils are found in the high school. This fact probably accounts for the sequestration of the term "*common school*," in popular usage.

If these definitions are correct, the successful study of physical science will require certain qualities of mind in the student. He must possess the power of exact observation; his definitions must be lucid and precise; he must express himself easily in the accurate use of the dialect of his science; his arrangement and classification of facts must be logical and conformable to the usage of scholars. He can not safely neglect the discipline of the imagination, whose scientific uses are so many, nor can he hope for success without enthusiasm. To this end he needs a systematic training. The qualities just enumerated are not inborn.

But the average man does not approach physical science from the standpoint of the scholar. He cares only for the practical results that happen to attract his attention. He is not a scholar, though he is entitled to a scholarly training as far as he goes. No instruction or method of instruction must be given him which would not satisfy the most exacting of scholars. The difference between his attainments and those of the scholar are of degree rather than of kind. Both observe—the scholar with a more instant grasp of results than the *average man*; both reason—the scholar more broadly than he; both define

—the scholar more tersely and crisply than he; both imagine—the scholar more vividly than he; both are concerned with investigation—the scholar cares less and he more for practical results. The training of the scholar includes that of the average man—as the crystal its nucleus.

Between these two is the educated artisan—a type just now appearing and destined to occupy a conspicuous position in the future. He must blend the enthusiasm of the scholar with the wisdom of the man of affairs.

Here, then, with regard to physical science, are three men to be trained—the scholar, the educated artisan, and the average man. This training is the work of the school. How much of it belongs to the common school below the highest grade? What is this school to do? It is to give suitable preparation to the scholar for the high school, to the artisan his main preparation for the technical school, to the average man for the ordinary affairs of life, without any distinction of birth or of sex. In short, its work is amongst the rudiments of knowledge. This broad intent of the common school must not be lost sight of. This school must not be blamed because the merchant does not find its pupils expert accountants, the high school facile scholars, the technical school accomplished artisans; but it *must* be blamed if the pupils do not show themselves ready for the broader training offered by the counting-room and the higher school. All due allowance made for innate stupidity and waywardness, what, then, must the common school do, or fail? This is the question to be considered first of all. It does not concern us now to inquire whether the methods of common-school instruction in this country are lamentably unphilosophical and vague—whether committees meddle where they ought to help; whether too few have grace to select good teachers from poor ones, and when found to let them alone—whether too few teachers teach from such a love of the work that nothing else attracts them; whether by mechanical and arbitrary classification the children of the better educated and more intelligent people are defrauded in the common school and so forced into private schools. These inquiries do not concern us now, for we are dealing with the best school. What must this school do? It must give the child the best possible training for the life of a citizen, either as a scholar, artisan, or average man. That is, it must give adequate training in the ordinary English branches, in *drawing*, hitherto much neglected, and in the elements of the natural-history sciences.

The selection and order of studies must depend upon the laws of the growth and development of the intellect. Any other principle is sure to end in confusion and distortion. The pupil of the common school—that is, the child—is not in the full possession of all the faculties he is endowed with. He perceives quickly, he imagines vividly, he feels with a quick changing fervor, he remembers easily, when compared with the man he becomes. But he can not generalize broadly, not think abstractly to much purpose. He can not lay hold of ultimate principles. His reflective powers are still unawakened. Whatever is objective and concrete he seizes; whatever is subjective and abstract he may wonder at, but he can not comprehend. No amount of ingenious torture, some times cheerfully called thorough drill, can abolish or change this law. How many times have you seen a bright boy triumphantly exhibited as a prodigy in COLBURN'S Arithmetic, when your relentless judgment pronounced the whole a sheer achievement of an extraordinary memory. The best common school

must assiduously cultivate perception, memory and imagination, changing the first into the power of exact observation, giving method and power to the second, and raising the imagination to a seat beside reason on the throne of the faculties. It must also watch, as one watches for the morning, the dawn of reason, and wisely direct its very first impulses.

This work it accomplishes in the discriminating use of the object-method, by giving to the pupil language, written and spoken, the instrument of thought; drawing, the language of form and proportion; the facts of history, geography, and number. Though recognizing the awful truth that knowledge by suffering entereth, and that the education which never costs a pang is not worthy the name of education, it still insists on piquing the curiosity of the child and awakening his interest as much as possible in the acquisition of knowledge. It skillfully employs, in stead of more conveniently destroying, all the child's instincts and emotions.

In prosecuting this work, what can be more natural or more useful than to observe the facts which underlie the natural-history sciences? To show that this work is not done at present, one has only to ask himself the following questions: How many men know whether the rocks over which their homesteads stand are granite or sandstone? whether or not granite and quartz are identical? How many can tell limestone from granite? How many know whether there are any fossils in New-England rocks? any shell-fish in fresh water, or any place better than another where chrysalides can be found? How many men or women can name all the familiar flowers of our fields and woods, or the birds famed for plumage or for song that inhabit our common shade-trees? How many can identify and name the shade-trees? You answer, readily enough, "Oh, a great many can do it." I wish you would try the experiment on the first hundred you meet. I used to hold your opinion, but it has been rudely shaken. And further, with all the time which is spent—I almost said wasted—in studying grammar, the number of intelligent, and even thoughtful, people who can describe a flower, or a tree, or a bird, so that the hearer can get from the description a reasonably clear idea of it, is lamentably small.

It has been shown by repeated experiments that children of six or seven years of age may know the name, form and color of all the common flowers and trees, and many at that age can recognize the song-birds by their notes. The same general results are attainable in the study of minerals, shells, and insects, and animals in general.

This sort of study of nature I would urge upon the common school. Collections of specimens are every where attainable, without money and without price. The way is always open to the earnest student of nature. The work must be progressive, and must be intelligently directed and regulated. Primary pupils can learn the names of objects and something of their color and form. Grammar scholars can learn to discriminate, compare, and, in some cases, in advanced grades, explain typical forms. The whole work must be strictly a process of *viva-voce* teaching. Text-books must never appear in any other capacity than as aids to the teacher, and as furnishing corroborative testimony. The success of the scheme depends wholly on the teacher.

It seems to me that the work of the common school, in teaching physical sci-

ence, must be limited to the study of the facts of the natural-history sciences. I do not see how any one can justify any attempt to introduce physical apparatus into this school. It can not serve any purpose but that of amusement, and this is a degradation of science.

If this science is good in itself and necessary to good learning, teachers will be prepared to carry it out. They must hear courses of lectures from masters in science to learn methods; they must provide themselves with sound and accurate books to guide them in studying nature\*; they must, by learning, reading and seeing, fit themselves by slow degrees to teach. For there must be no "hearing lessons" from books, in this work. The teacher is to keep—not bring—the child in sympathetic contact with nature.

Let me quote a paragraph in a letter from President WHITE, of Cornell; after urging the importance of studying the elements of physical science in the common schools, he says: "The only question is whether large numbers of the teachers are not so unfitted for the work as to make the carrying-out of the idea almost an impossibility. If you can get over this stumbling-block, I should say, by all means push the elements of the study in the common school.

Prof. C. F. CHANDLER, the eminent chemist of the Columbia College Mining School, says: "It is extremely important to introduce instruction in physical science in schools of all grades, no matter how low. The physical and natural sciences are taught in Germany in the primary schools with great success. I frequently met the little boys scouring the country with their muslin nets and botanical boxes, catching butterflies, bottling insects, and gathering flowers. The great advantage of calling the attention of young children to the physical and natural sciences is due to the fact that their observing faculties, their inductive powers, and a faculty of correct discussion and minute and exact description, are thereby cultivated. In fact, the whole system of instruction in these branches of science is what we call 'object teaching,' the most effective method of imparting knowledge and at the same time developing the various faculties that has yet been invented."

But how can this work be done in schools already overwhelmed with work? In two ways. By simplifying the work and removing all the rubbish. *How* much may be saved by better methods I will not stop to inquire. The possibility of a very great saving is generally admitted. How much unprofitable work could be supplanted I will only suggest, by making some allusions to the study of grammar, though many reliable and experienced teachers think as much time can be saved from number and from spelling and from geography as from grammar.

It has fallen to my lot, at different times, to argue before my fellow teachers the necessity of revolution in the current method of teaching grammar, urging that grammar, which is the statement of the forms and laws of speech, is supplanting language; pointing out that, at present, there are a great many interesting remarks made about language in school; that pupils learn something of its history, inflections and caprices, but very little of its essence and power, and that every kind of inquiry and every form of business would be incalculably aided by a change in this respect.

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\*Nothing is better suited to this end than the publications of the PEABODY Academy of Natural Science, and other works sold by the Natural-History Agency at Salem, Mass.

I urge again the importance of a change from grammar to language in the common-school course, in the light of the subject we are now considering.

Whatever our schools do or do not accomplish, it is pretty plain that they do not confer or develop right speech. There has been a steady retrogression in this respect for the last forty years, till the monstrous notion has appeared that slang is the only really pungent and effective speech.

Probably any one who has a correspondence of 1000 or 1500 letters a year will agree with me in the statement that the average citizen of New England of 70 years of age has a much more effective and serviceable command of the English language than the average man of 30. It is a somewhat common belief amongst thoughtful people that the same fact can be demonstrated of college graduates in respect of the classical languages. Professors in technical schools complain of nothing so much or so often as the lack of power of expression in their students. The department of language in a technical or scientific school is, in all respects, one of the most important.

But, positively, nothing tends more directly to encourage and cultivate habits of precision and elegance in speech, and no single source of an ample vocabulary is more affluent, than descriptions of objects in natural history. Conversant more and more with forms which obey inflexible laws, the child will unconsciously shape his speech according to the same model of exactness; while the beauty of created forms will powerfully influence his emotional nature and be reflected in the graces of his speech. I should not be afraid to substitute such study of nature for a large part of the labor at present expended in the common school on the study of grammar.

The eminent author of the leading treatise on Psychology says: The study of language should be prosecuted in childhood, as it is, in fact, the acquisition of the mother tongue. Grammar, so far as it is acquired, should be simple, plain, and practical. Its theories should be kept in the background, its terminology and principles should be the reverse of the abstract. The contrasts and comparisons involved between the strange and the familiar will stimulate and guide to the first beginnings of reflective grammar. The memory for words should be exercised and stimulated. Choice tales and poems, narrative and lyric, should be learned for recitation. Natural history, in all its branches, as contrasted with the sciences of nature or scientific physics, should be pursued with the objects before the eye—flowers, minerals, shells, birds, and beasts. These studies should all be mastered in the spring-time of life, when the tastes are simple, the heart is fresh, and the eye is sharp and clear.

Next to the power of exact observation, the student of science needs ability to define with precision, and to use the same term, always, in the same sense in the same proposition. His thought and his speech must fortify each the other, and be counterparts in their crystalline purity and exactness. It has been well said that a problem well stated is a problem half solved. The war of DARWIN against AGASSIS would be reduced to a skirmish if each of the mighty combatants knew exactly what the other meant, and most of their partisans would be driven from the Sancho-Panza combats of comfortable society-rooms, to delve themselves in some of the unworked mines of scientific inquiry—to the great advantage of science.

The progress of science depends very largely upon clear and precise statements of its problems and consistent use of its terminology.

It is clear, then, on the merits of the case, that physical science, as well as all science, would be helped by a reformation in language-teaching in our common schools.

But, while this may be true for the student of science, where, meantime, is our average man? He will not become a student of science. He goes into the ordinary business of life. He becomes, perchance, a member of a natural-history society. His formal education ceases when he leaves the common school. "The physical sciences are coming to be regarded as the doors through which our national wealth may be reached and our national industries developed," is the warning suggestion in the president's letter of invitation. Is the man not defrauded, in a certain sense, by the exclusion of the physical sciences from school?

This is a question of great importance, and it demands serious consideration. It is certain that the inevitable, rudimentary work of the common school is in general so imperfectly done that any addition to it is the most consummate folly. The first duty of ordinary schools is to come up to the standard of the best schools in methods and apparatus of instruction. It will not help to introduce the study of physical science. To attempt to remedy and supplement rude and incomplete work by the imposition of new work in untried fields is a very grave mistake. It will only add to the confusion. The new wine will burst the bottles, and the bottles be marred.

True, there is nothing that people in general so much dread as a thorough overhauling of mismanaged, clumsy, ineffective schools. "Do n't you see," exclaimed a pundit in our legislature, when a bill was proposed making diplomas of graduation at the state normal schools sufficient evidence of fitness to teach, "Do n't you see, it will give them an advantage over others who have n't been to the normal school?"

Some ardent friends of youth, aware of the lack in current methods and the meagreness of their results, and aware, too, of the importance of a knowledge of physical science to all young people at the present time, rather hastily conclude that it must at once be taught in the common school, forgetting that schools obey laws. This plan some times suggests the bill of that renowned parliamentarian, Mr. TITTLEBAT TITMOUSE, for giving every body every thing.

This is a question of possibilities. The man certainly is defrauded if, when a boy in school, he is not taught the necessary mathematics, language, history, geography, drawing, penmanship, and made familiar with those objects in nature that lie within easy reach. It seems to me that this is enough, however skillfully done, of serious work for the time allotted to it. New studies can not be introduced without displacing those approved by long experience as essential and indispensable.

But let not even the obvious propriety of teaching the elements of the natural-history sciences in the common school obstruct or obscure the reforms so much needed in the general philosophy and method of teaching. This is the first and all-important work for reformers in education. Without this, the teaching of natural science would degenerate into routine and mechanical drudgery. There is a well-authenticated anecdote of a teacher, who, urged by



the superintendent to introduce object-teaching into her school, bought SHELTON'S Manual and caused her pupils to commit it to memory. Though such folly as this is not common, the fact that it is possible is very much to the point.

The conclusion which seems inevitable from the considerations now urged is, that object-teaching of the facts of the natural-history sciences is the method and the scope of physical science in the common school.

In defense of this position, I beg to quote some passages from eminent living writers and masters in science, taken from private letters. President CHADBOURNE says: "If you ask should any *direct* instruction in the physical sciences be given in the common school as a distinct exercise or study, I answer, No. I think it desirable, however, that scholars should have familiar instruction in the physical sciences at an early age, so far as it can be given incidentally, in connection with other studies. I do not think the cause of science generally would be promoted by substituting instruction in the physical sciences for the studies now prescribed for most of our schools below the high-school grade."

President SMITH, of Dartmouth College, says: "I have no doubt that, if the way were open, physical science might be taught to advantage in the common school below the high-school grade. It lies on the plane upon which the child-mind works most readily and with the greatest facility, that of sense—or of the objective and the concrete rather than the subjective and the abstract. Children incline to things, so to speak, rather than thought. But is the way open? As matters stand, can we spare any of the time given to the studies of the established programme? Are not these studies only half-mastered? I incline to think the answer must be in the affirmative. I see light only in one direction. Some of the studies might, perhaps, be dealt with in a more compendious and yet a better because a more natural way. English grammar, for example. Could not the end be gained with a saving of time, so that the elements of natural science could have place? This point of saving time without losing force or effect is one of the greatest in education."

President CLARK, of the State Agricultural College, says: "I am decidedly of the opinion that too many studies are pursued in our schools. The tendency is to superficiality, and to a sort of disrespect for the essential elements of education, among both teachers and pupils. The cause of science will be best promoted by thoroughness of preparation for its pursuit when the mind has become somewhat developed. Children may be amused by the wonders of science, but they will not discover or apply many important principles."

Professor GILMAN says: "I have no doubt that, with competent teachers, much may be done towards awakening a love of nature at a very early age; but so many persons try to teach book-knowledge of nature, that children are repelled by dry names and abstract statements. The advantage of early calling the attention of young people to the observation and study of natural objects and phenomena seems to me obvious."

Professor C. A. YOUNG, of Dartmouth College, says: "I have no doubt that the elements of natural philosophy might advantageously be taught in the common schools—that the *graduates*, so to speak, of the common schools really ought to know something about the subject. But whether the studies at present pursued can any of them be wisely superseded by the study of natural physics seems to me very doubtful. But I do not think

Common schools might fairly be required to have more knowledge of the subject, and that accurate, as far as it goes, and not indefinite or incorrect, like that derived from most of our high-school text-books."

Prof. JAMES D. DANA says: "I am strongly of the opinion that children may begin the study of natural history to advantage as early as at ten years of age. By that time they engage eagerly in collecting postage-stamps, and that love of curiosities which they thus exhibit might as well be utilized in ways more for their profit. If their attention were early directed by a judicious teacher toward minerals and plants, and an occasional out-door exercise taken, many would give up stamps for specimens in natural history. By two or three such exercises an interest is sure to be excited in stones of all kinds and colors, and new localities will be found by the children themselves, and new specimens brought in. The children will then gather up knowledge without effort. The result of such studies is somewhat like that from the opening of blind eyes; for the world becomes tenfold fuller of objects of interest and pleasure, and children make rapid growth in intellect through their improved powers of seeing and distinguishing, and their quickened habits of attention and thought. There is no doubt, too, that the early and general introduction of instruction in natural history would tend to multiply investigators and give an impulse to scientific discovery."

President NOAH PORTER says: "I am very confident that the study of nature should, in the earlier activities of childhood and the comparatively undisciplined and unreflecting age, be confined to the simple classifications of natural history. Beyond that it is very unwise to go. To anticipate any thing like science proper is unnatural. The interest in science itself is not likely to be promoted, but to be hindered, by such a course." \*

To those who object that this "method of physical science" in the common school tends to the repression of thought, I answer that such a result is so unnatural that it would prove the unworthiness of the teacher and not the weakness of the method.

If these views should be generally adopted in the best schools, and reforms secured in schools at large, the pupil would emerge from the common school possessed of the first requisite of the scientific man-power of exact observation. The other qualities enumerated must be developed by the broader training of the high school, the technical school, and the college. But what efficiency and completeness this training would have if the facts of nature could have become a part of the child's mind before he submits to it!

The average man thus furnished no longer walks through the world as in a vain show; every natural object attracts and interests him. The stimulus of his school training urges him to reading and investigation. The stone beneath his feet guides him to its history, nature, and purpose; the ants and the bees, the squirrels and the foxes, moralize to him; the birds prophesy to him, while they pour their music into his delighted ear; the flowers teach him their impressive lessons of order in variety and fill his soul with their free gifts of beauty. To him, as well as to the philosophic poet,

\* For a complete and admirable statement of this doctrine, see PORTER'S *Human Intellect*, pp. 74, 75, and abridgement of the same, pp. 51, 52.

— the meanest flower that blows can give  
Thoughts that too often lie too deep for tears.

But, of all this pleasure within his reach, the average man, as far as the common school goes, is now deprived. Is this right?

Do not mistake my purpose in speaking somewhat earnestly. Fellow teachers, this is no child's play that we are engaged in. We must not treat it with indifference or coldness. We must not fear to deal plainly and uncompromisingly with false methods, however old and however firmly entrenched in the affections of the people. I would not be found among chronic grumblers. No one rejoices more in what has been done in education, and no one hopes for more in the future.

But let not our hopes beguile us into negligence of duty. Let us render our schools more effective, because more conformable to right principles and methods, before this present, prophetic epoch of criticism, investigation and reform passes for ever.

The difference between the common school of the north and that of the south is vast; between that of the south and none at all, as great as between a draught of cold water to a thirsty soul and death; between that of the north as it is and as it is to be—immeasurable.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Mr. I. N. Carleton*, Principal of the State Normal School of Connecticut, concurred in the views expressed in the paper read. We should be careful to separate elementary from scientific instruction. The trouble hitherto has been that teachers had no definite ideas respecting this distinction; but when attempting to teach physical science in the most elementary schools, they have troubled their pupils by the premature introduction of scientific principles. The mind not being yet sufficiently developed to grasp these principles, confusion of ideas is the result. The powers that enable us to grapple successfully with true science are not developed early, and we can not take delight in abstract reasoning before the age of twelve. The elements only are the proper pabulum of younger children, and these should be taught in primary schools.

Your little child four or five years old can tell about the menagerie as well as you can, because he has seen it. But scientific names should only be given after the object has been explained and seen. The little ones need to be carefully drilled in the names given, in this case. They some times make amusing or ludicrous mistakes with names, as one of them did who, when dining with a company, overheard one reply to a proffer of certain articles upon the table. The response was by the lady, "No, I thank you, I have eaten a sufficiency." The little fellow thought he understood it, and that he would use the phrase himself; and of course surprised his father, when he offered him a certain thing at the table by replying, "No, I thank you, I have eaten a sanctified missionary"! I do not think that the introduction of this subject into our schools will displace any thing that is important.

One trouble in teaching is that we are on too high a pedestal, we do not come down to touch our pupils enough. The power which makes a teacher eminently valuable is this magnetic power—this power of touching heart to heart. The teachers who succeed best have their times when they lay aside

books, and come down and talk in easy, gentle and natural tones about common things. If we speak of those things in which we have a deep interest, we shall be sure to interest our pupils.

Mr. C. M. Woodward, the Dean of the Polytechnic Department of Washington University, St. Louis, believed in the importance and feasibility of introducing science and natural history into elementary schools; and he thought much could be done there to prepare the way for a future course. I am in accord with the gentlemen who have preceded me in regard to the method of obtaining time for this work there. Certainly the suggestion in regard to dispensing with so much of the study of certain branches now taught, for the sake of introducing this subject, is an important one. I believe, too, in abridging, somewhat, the study of geography: not that this is unimportant, but the geography of Asia and Africa is no more important than the natural history of our own state or city. I believe in knowing something of the things around us. I believe in a useful education, and I think we shall arrive at the preliminaries of a higher knowledge by the study of those things which are useful as well as in the study of other things.

I believe in the early and regular practice of drawing in school. And this is not a matter of theory, but of experience; I know it has been very successfully taught in the schools of St. Louis, where the system has accomplished a great deal. He thought there had been too much of a tendency to generalize and to teach too much in our common schools; and that some of our most earnest educational efforts had failed. In teaching natural science in our common schools, he thought the study should be made as interesting as possible, and so taught as not to interfere with the elementary studies. In the St. Louis schools the study of the natural sciences occupied but an hour a week. Even with such a brief time, he found that a wonderful degree of progress had been made, even by the youngest pupils.

The following paper, by Mr. FRANCIS H. UNDERWOOD, of Boston, was read by C. GOODWIN CLARKE, of the Lincoln Grammar School, Boston:

#### ENGLISH LITERATURE, AND ITS PLACE IN POPULAR EDUCATION.

The prosperity of a nation comes from well-directed industry; its happiness, from the impartial execution of equal laws; its greatness, from the indomitable spirit of its people; but its lasting glory, from its letters and art. No seats of empire have received so much of the homage of mankind as the small cities of Athens and Jerusalem. Merely commercial cities, like Tyre, Carthage, and Palmyra, are soon forgotten. Even Rome is less revered as the home of the Cæsars, the mother of modern states and the source of modern civilization, than as the seat of a magnificent literature, that has enriched every language of Christendom and is still a light to the learned world. Success in arms and the acquisition of territory give temporary renown; but after the lapse of a few centuries, *every thing but the thoughts of a great people perishes*. Not one stone stands upon another on the site of Persepolis, and no one can enumerate the tribes that were subject to the Persian monarchs, or fix the limit of their empire.

But the precepts of ZOROASTER, (the majestic contemporary of ABRAHAM) still survive, indestructible amidst all the vicissitudes of human affairs. The history of letters refuses to be divided by the reigns of monarchs, and is measured by the appearance of great authors,—as the zodiac is measured by its constellations. We speak of the age of DANTE, careless of what JULIUS or NICHOLAS or GREGORY might occupy the papal chair. The times of CHAUCER we know; but King EDWARD III is only a lay-figure, a mere accessory in the picture we imagine. The idea of DON QUIXOTE is more real to us than PHILIP II; and the time may come when the sea-fight of Lepanto may be remembered chiefly because one of DON JOHN's victorious galleys carried as a common sailor the great CERVANTES. We know that the illustrious GOETHE was a counselor of state; but the monarch he served is already a shade. So, to return to English history, we speak of the age of SPENSER, of BACON, and SHAKESPEARE; and the name of the great ELIZABETH has been made into an adjective to denote the brilliant epoch in whose glory she had no share. MILTON, once the Latin secretary, outshines the great Lord Protector. Stolid Queen ANNE lives only in the memory of the elegant essayists of her time. Farther on we trace the same intellectual lineage. Hanoverian GEORGES and WILLIAMS are naught. It is the age of SCOTT, of BYRON, and WORDSWORTH,—the age of CARLYLE, MACAULAY, DICKENS, THACKERAY, and TENNYSON.

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Literature is a part of the world's history, and in many respects the most important part. The rise and fall of dynasties and the changes in forms of government are chiefly important on account of the light they throw on the progress of political science, and the hope they give of the advance of mankind towards justice and equality. But the real life of a nation is preserved in its literature; and the student who is familiar with the personal memories, letters, plays and songs of any era has a better knowledge of the character and condition of the people than all the formal histories can give him.

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deavor to find a proper place in a popular course of instruction for beginning the study of literature.

We shall suppose that the art of reading intelligently has been acquired,—that arithmetic has been begun,—that the general outlines of geography have been made familiar, and that the relations of words in sentences are understood. At this point the judicious teacher should consider what further subjects are of the most importance to the average pupil. The studies commonly pursued next in an English course,—besides using higher reading-books,—are, the higher mathematics, history, physical geography, some departments of natural science, the first elements of physics, rhetoric and mental philosophy. English literature has rarely found a place.

It is undoubtedly the judgment of the best teachers that mathematics should be continuously studied, and form a part of every day's routine. Next in order come the elements of physical geography, and such branches of natural science as the school has facilities for teaching,—special prominence being given to physiology, or, rather, to so much of physiology as applies to the proper care of the body and its surroundings.

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A gentleman told me of a rambling excursion he once made, in company with HORACE MANN and one or two other friends, in the fields and woods of Virginia, near Washington. "Do n't you think it shameful," said the great educator, "that we have been so badly brought up? Here are we, all of us pronounced to be Masters of Arts or Doctors of Laws by the authority of college faculties. But what arts are we masters of? We scarcely know a tree or shrub, fruit or flower, bird or animal, especially out of our native state; and we dare not taste a strange berry or smell a new blossom for fear of being poisoned. If we were starving, we should not know how to satisfy our hunger. Nature is a sealed book to us; and yet the earth is fruitful, the woods and fields are full of life. We alone have no place at the table where all are fed."

To dwell upon the subjects suggested in this conversation would consume too much of our time at present. Let us pass on to consider a few other branches of study. As for rhetoric, it would seem to be a waste of time to study it formally,—at least in any short course. Any competent teacher ought to be able to point out to pupils the correct use of language and the propriety of figures of speech; and this should be done as a part of the daily exercise in reading. The style which is commended by such pedants as BLAIR is what all our best writers strive to avoid. Mental and moral philosophy can not be pursued with advantage by immature pupils, and should certainly be postponed to near the end of the course. There remain the two topics of History and Literature. I do not see that History is entitled to any great precedence. If a pupil has such an acquaintance with English history as he would gain from the small but admira-

able work of CHARLES DICKENS, it would seem best that he should next get a knowledge of the writers of the various epochs, and that the political and literary events of the country should thereafter be taken in connection. The same remark may be made with regard to the History of the United States. If you attend an examination of a Boston Grammar School, you will find one or more of the blackboards covered with *anno-domini* dates; and boys and girls will be eager to give you some fact, more or less important, that is associated with every date. But if they were asked by some foreigner, who was just beginning to read our literature, when IRVING was born, or what works he had written, who JONATHAN EDWARDS was, whether COOPER was a greater novelist than Mrs. SOUTHWORTH, whether the *Atlantic Monthly* was equal in merit to the *N.Y. Ledger*, and whether EMERSON wrote often for the *Waverley Magazine*,—what answers would he get? But, surely, in any point of view, a knowledge of our chief poets, historians and essayists is of as much consequence as the opinions and doings of JAMES K. POLK, WM. H. HARRISON, FRANKLIN PIERCE, and similar persons, with which our historic muse is occupied.

One of the grave errors in our system is in the persistent reading and re-reading of books that are intended mainly for exercises in elocution. It is true that many of these series of readers have been compiled by scholars, and contain many admirable selections; although I have seen an advertisement by one publisher who claims as the peculiar glory of *his* set of books that the pieces they contain are mostly original; and yet the name of this writer is in no collection of American authors: as though the style of a mediocre person should be preferred, as a model for students, to the finished sentences and poetic gems of men of genius.

But the best of our school reading-books are merely a kind of literary *hash*; and I am much of the opinion of the Frenchman who had become tired of the mysterious article bearing that name in his boarding-house, and who exclaimed to the landlady: "I do not like 'ashes,—I *préfer* *côlmeat*. Please take away ze '*ash*, and give me some *côlmeat*."

Now reading occupies a part of every day in school and should receive even more attention than it does. But it must be admitted that the miscellanies we place before children—half a dozen in a course—are not, on the whole, very attractive; and they are certainly not useful, considering the time they occupy. On one page is a goodish poem; on another is a bit of a sermon; here a tolerable story; there a speaker's peroration. The facts belong to no one age or country, and the style is as various as the matter. How utterly unphilosophical this proceeding is, either for the acquisition of knowledge or for the formation of taste, this assembly of teachers ought to know.

And this leads to the last point and the main purpose of this brief essay,—which is to urge that the course of daily reading in grammar schools be wholly reformed and utilized, that after two or three preliminary collections have been gone through, and the pupils are able to read with tolerable fluency, the subsequent or higher reading-books be discarded, and their further daily practice be in systematic works that will not only give proficiency in reading, but inspire a love of nature, impart useful knowledge, and cultivate a taste for literature.

A good example has already been furnished in Dr. WORTHINGTON HOOKER'S *Child's Book of Nature*. Dr. ASA GRAY'S treatise entitled *How Plants Grow*

is another of like character. DICKENS'S *Child's History of England* (already mentioned) would be an excellent work for young pupils.

Should the course here recommended be generally adopted, we should very soon find the results of the labors of scientific explorers and savans put into popular and attractive books to meet the demand.

Instruction in English literature should go on with these branches in equal step. Any well-disciplined child of fourteen years (and perhaps less) is ready to receive judicious lessons in this department. For this purpose, it is not necessary to begin with CHAUCER, nor to follow any rigid rule of chronology. BACON and all the philosophers, and TAYLOR and all the theologians, *may wait*. But the teacher can take works of acknowledged merit that are capable of being understood by youths, and lead his charge through pleasant fields until, by imperceptible degrees, they reach the heights. When they have been accustomed to notice peculiarities of style and modes of thought, and have in other respects sufficient maturity of mind, they can trace the development of language historically and view the treasures of our literature as in a panorama.

It will be advisable, in all cases where the means allow, to read certain works entire. Thus, SHAKESPEARE can not be profitably studied by means of selections, but the best of his plays should be read from HUDSON'S or ROLFE'S editions. No separate scenes are either satisfactory or instructive. Other works may be named for thorough reading, such as MILTON'S *Comus*, GOLDSMITH'S *Traveler*, and *Vicar of Wakefield*, LOWELL'S *Vision of Sir Launfal*, LONGFELLOW'S *Evangeline*, WHITTIER'S *Snow-Bound*, EMERSON'S *May-Day*, and one or two of TENNYSON'S *Idyls of the King*.

But all educators know that the cases in which complete works of this kind can be procured in sufficient numbers for the use of a school will be exceptional. And in any event it will be desirable to supplement this course with some volume of selections, arranged in historical order, and containing the necessary biographical, critical and linguistic notes. The benefit of such a course of instruction introduced into the grammar schools, and continued in the high schools, would be incalculable. The teacher would make a daily study of the author from whom the lesson was to be taken. He would fill out the narrow outline of the biography. He would illustrate and refine the critical estimates, giving his own views, and stimulating the pupils to examine for themselves and to form habits of independent judgment. It is doubtful whether any branch of instruction would yield more certain and more abundant fruit.

In my boyhood I never, by any accident, had my attention directed to the beauties or excellences of English literature. *Paradise Lost* was used only for the odious exercise of parsing; and the noblest lines of MILTON are to this day connected with the pattering of conjugations and declensions. No more effectual way could be taken to disenchant the student than by breaking the lines, as upon the wheel, and analyzing the still quivering members by the dull rules of syntax.

In a few modern schools English literature receives attention, but they are generally high schools. The bulk of our children, however, never reach the high schools; and, if they did, there is no reason why the study should not be taken up earlier. Abolish the profitless reading of scrap-books! and let each day's reading be given in turn to some branch of natural science, to history



the superintendent to introduce object-teaching into her school, bought SHELDON'S Manual and caused her pupils to commit it to memory. Though such folly as this is not common, the fact that it is possible is very much to the point.

The conclusion which seems inevitable from the considerations now urged is, that object-teaching of the facts of the natural-history sciences is the method and the scope of physical science in the common school.

In defense of this position, I beg to quote some passages from eminent living writers and masters in science, taken from private letters. President CHADBOURNE says: "If you ask should any *direct* instruction in the physical sciences be given in the common school as a distinct exercise or study, I answer, No. I think it desirable, however, that scholars should have familiar instruction in the physical sciences at an early age, so far as it can be given incidentally, in connection with other studies. I do not think the cause of science generally would be promoted by substituting instruction in the physical sciences for the studies now prescribed for most of our schools below the high-school grade."

President SMITH, of Dartmouth College, says: "I have no doubt that, if the way were open, physical science might be taught to advantage in the common schools below the high-school grade. It lies on the plane upon which the child-mind works most readily and with the greatest facility, that of sense—or of the objective and the concrete rather than the subjective and the abstract. Children incline to things, so to speak, rather than thought. But is the way open? As matters stand, can we spare any of the time given to the studies of the established programme? Are not these studies only half-mastered? I incline to think the answer must be in the affirmative. I see light only in one direction. Some of the studies might, perhaps, be dealt with in a more compendious and yet a better because a more natural way. English grammar, for example. Could not the end be gained with a saving of time, so that the elements of natural science could have place? This point of saving time without losing force or effect is one of the greatest in education."

President CLARK, of the State Agricultural College, says: "I am decidedly of the opinion that too many studies are pursued in our schools. The tendency is to superficiality, and to a sort of disrespect for the essential elements of education, among both teachers and pupils. The cause of science will be best promoted by thoroughness of preparation for its pursuit when the mind has become somewhat developed. Children may be amused by the wonders of science, but they will not discover or apply many important principles."

Professor GILMAN says: "I have no doubt that, with competent teachers, much may be done towards awakening a love of nature at a very early age; but so many persons try to teach book-knowledge of nature, that children are repelled by dry names and abstract statements. The advantage of early calling the attention of young people to the observation and study of natural objects and phenomena seems to me obvious."

Professor C. A. YOUNG, of Dartmouth College, says: "I have no doubt that the elements of natural philosophy might advantageously be taught in the common schools—that the *graduates*, so to speak, of the common schools really ought to know something about the subject. But whether the studies at present pursued can any of them be wisely superseded by the study of elementary physics seems to me very doubtful. But I do think that teachers of the

mon schools might fairly be required to have more knowledge of the subject, and that accurate, as far as it goes, and not indefinite or incorrect, like that derived from most of our high-school text-books."

Prof. JAMES D. DANA says: "I am strongly of the opinion that children may begin the study of natural history to advantage as early as at ten years of age. By that time they engage eagerly in collecting postage-stamps, and that love of curiosities which they thus exhibit might as well be utilized in ways more for their profit. If their attention were early directed by a judicious teacher toward minerals and plants, and an occasional out-door exercise taken, many would give up stamps for specimens in natural history. By two or three such exercises an interest is sure to be excited in stones of all kinds and colors, and new localities will be found by the children themselves, and new specimens brought in. The children will then gather up knowledge without effort. The result of such studies is somewhat like that from the opening of blind eyes; for the world becomes tenfold fuller of objects of interest and pleasure, and children make rapid growth in intellect through their improved powers of seeing and distinguishing, and their quickened habits of attention and thought. There is no doubt, too, that the early and general introduction of instruction in natural history would tend to multiply investigators and give an impulse to scientific discovery."

President NOAH PORTER says: "I am very confident that the study of nature should, in the earlier activities of childhood and the comparatively undisciplined and unreflecting age, be confined to the simple classifications of natural history. Beyond that it is very unwise to go. To anticipate any thing like science proper is unnatural. The interest in science itself is not likely to be promoted, but to be hindered, by such a course." \*

To those who object that this "method of physical science" in the common school tends to the repression of thought, I answer that such a result is so unnatural that it would prove the unworthiness of the teacher and not the weakness of the method.

If these views should be generally adopted in the best schools, and reforms secured in schools at large, the pupil would emerge from the common school possessed of the first requisite of the scientific man-power of exact observation. The other qualities enumerated must be developed by the broader training of the high school, the technical school, and the college. But what efficiency and completeness this training would have if the facts of nature could have become a part of the child's mind before he submits to it!

The average man thus furnished no longer walks through the world as in a vain show; every natural object attracts and interests him. The stimulus of his school training urges him to reading and investigation. The stone beneath his feet guides him to its history, nature, and purpose; the ants and the bees, the squirrels and the foxes, moralize to him; the birds prophesy to him, while they pour their music into his delighted ear; the flowers teach him their impressive lessons of order in variety and fill his soul with their free gifts of beauty. To him, as well as to the philosophic poet,

\* For a complete and admirable statement of this doctrine, see PORTER'S *Human Intellect*, pp. 74, 75, and abridgement of the same, pp. 51, 52.

— the meanest flower that blows can give  
Thoughts that too often lie too deep for tears.

But, of all this pleasure within his reach, the average man, as far as the common school goes, is now deprived. Is this right?

Do not mistake my purpose in speaking somewhat earnestly. Fellow teachers, this is no child's play that we are engaged in. We must not treat it with indifference or coldness. We must not fear to deal plainly and uncompromisingly with false methods, however old and however firmly entrenched in the affections of the people. I would not be found among chronic grumblers. No one rejoices more in what has been done in education, and no one hopes for more in the future.

But let not our hopes beguile us into negligence of duty. Let us render our schools more effective, because more conformable to right principles and methods, before this present, prophetic epoch of criticism, investigation and reform passes for ever.

The difference between the common school of the north and that of the south is vast; between that of the south and none at all, as great as between a draught of cold water to a thirsty soul and death; between that of the north as it is and as it is to be—immeasurable.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Mr. I. N. Carleton*, Principal of the State Normal School of Connecticut, concurred in the views expressed in the paper read. We should be careful to separate elementary from scientific instruction. The trouble hitherto has been that teachers had no definite ideas respecting this distinction; but when attempting to teach physical science in the most elementary schools, they have troubled their pupils by the premature introduction of scientific principles. The mind not being yet sufficiently developed to grasp these principles, confusion of ideas is the result. The powers that enable us to grapple successfully with true science are not developed early, and we can not take delight in abstract reasoning before the age of twelve. The elements only are the proper pabulum of younger children, and these should be taught in primary schools.

Your little child four or five years old can tell about the menagerie as well as you can, because he has seen it. But scientific names should only be given after the object has been explained and seen. The little ones need to be carefully drilled in the names given, in this case. They some times make amusing or ludicrous mistakes with names, as one of them did who, when dining with a company, overheard one reply to a proffer of certain articles upon the table. The response was by the lady, "No, I thank you, I have eaten a sufficiency." The little fellow thought he understood it, and that he would use the phrase himself; and of course surprised his father, when he offered him a certain thing at the table by replying, "No, I thank you, I have eaten a sanctified missionary"! I do not think that the introduction of this subject into our schools will displace any thing that is important.

One trouble in teaching is that we are on too high a pedestal, we do not come down to touch our pupils enough. The power which makes a teacher eminently valuable is this magnetic power—this power of touching heart to heart. The teachers who succeed best have their times when they lay aside

books, and come down and talk in easy, gentle and natural tones about common things. If we speak of those things in which we have a deep interest, we shall be sure to interest our pupils.

*Mr. C. M. Woodward*, the Dean of the Polytechnic Department of Washington University, St. Louis, believed in the importance and feasibility of introducing science and natural history into elementary schools; and he thought much could be done there to prepare the way for a future course. I am in accord with the gentlemen who have preceded me in regard to the method of obtaining time for this work there. Certainly the suggestion in regard to dispensing with so much of the study of certain branches now taught, for the sake of introducing this subject, is an important one. I believe, too, in abridging, somewhat, the study of geography: not that this is unimportant, but the geography of Asia and Africa is no more important than the natural history of our own state or city. I believe in knowing something of the things around us. I believe in a useful education, and I think we shall arrive at the preliminaries of a higher knowledge by the study of those things which are useful as well as in the study of other things.

I believe in the early and regular practice of drawing in school. And this is not a matter of theory, but of experience; I know it has been very successfully taught in the schools of St. Louis, where the system has accomplished a great deal. He thought there had been too much of a tendency to generalize and to teach too much in our common schools; and that some of our most earnest educational efforts had failed. In teaching natural science in our common schools, he thought the study should be made as interesting as possible, and so taught as not to interfere with the elementary studies. In the St. Louis schools the study of the natural sciences occupied but an hour a week. Even with such a brief time, he found that a wonderful degree of progress had been made, even by the youngest pupils.

The following paper, by *Mr. FRANCIS H. UNDERWOOD*, of Boston, was read by *C. GOODWIN CLARKE*, of the Lincoln Grammar School, Boston:

### ENGLISH LITERATURE, AND ITS PLACE IN POPULAR EDUCATION.

The prosperity of a nation comes from well-directed industry; its happiness, from the impartial execution of equal laws; its greatness, from the indomitable spirit of its people; but its lasting glory, from its letters and art. No seats of empire have received so much of the homage of mankind as the small cities of Athens and Jerusalem. Merely commercial cities, like Tyre, Carthage, and Palmyra, are soon forgotten. Even Rome is less revered as the home of the Cæsars, the mother of modern states and the source of modern civilization, than as the seat of a magnificent literature, that has enriched every language of Christendom and is still a light to the learned world. Success in arms and the acquisition of territory give temporary renown; but after the lapse of a few centuries, *every thing but the thoughts of a great people perishes*. Not one stone stands upon another on the site of Persepolis, and no one can enumerate the tribes that were subject to the Persian monarchs, or fix the limit of their empire.

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Literature is a part of the world's history, and in many respects the most important part. The rise and fall of dynasties and the changes in forms of government are chiefly important on account of the light they throw on the progress of political science, and the hope they give of the advance of mankind towards justice and equality. But the real life of a nation is preserved in its literature; and the student who is familiar with the personal memories, letters, plays and songs of any era has a better knowledge of the character and condition of the people than all the formal histories can give him.

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deavor to find a proper place in a popular course of instruction for beginning the study of literature.

We shall suppose that the art of reading intelligently has been acquired,—that arithmetic has been begun,—that the general outlines of geography have been made familiar, and that the relations of words in sentences are understood. At this point the judicious teacher should consider what further subjects are of the most importance to the average pupil. The studies commonly pursued next in an English course,—besides using higher reading-books,—are, the higher mathematics, history, physical geography, some departments of natural science, the first elements of physics, rhetoric and mental philosophy. English literature has rarely found a place.

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A gentleman told me of a rambling excursion he once made, in company with HORACE MANN and one or two other friends, in the fields and woods of Virginia, near Washington. "Do n't you think it shameful," said the great educator, "that we have been so badly brought up? Here are we, all of us pronounced to be Masters of Arts or Doctors of Laws by the authority of college faculties. But what arts are we masters of? We scarcely know a tree or shrub, fruit or flower, bird or animal, especially out of our native state; and we dare not taste a strange berry or smell a new blossom for fear of being poisoned. If we were starving, we should not know how to satisfy our hunger. Nature is a sealed book to us; and yet the earth is fruitful, the woods and fields are full of life. We alone have no place at the table where all are fed."

To dwell upon the subjects suggested in this conversation would consume too much of our time at present. Let us pass on to consider a few other branches of study. As for rhetoric, it would seem to be a waste of time to study it formally,—at least in any short course. Any competent teacher ought to be able to point out to pupils the correct use of language and the propriety of figures of speech; and this should be done as a part of the daily exercise in reading. The style which is commended by such pedants as BLAIR is what all our best writers strive to avoid. Mental and moral philosophy can not be pursued with advantage by immature pupils, and should certainly be postponed to near the end of the course. There remain the two topics of History and Literature. I do not see that History is entitled to any great precedence. If a pupil has such an acquaintance with English history as he would gain from the small but admira-

able work of CHARLES DICKENS, it would seem best that he should next get a knowledge of the writers of the various epochs, and that the political and literary events of the country should thereafter be taken in connection. The same remark may be made with regard to the History of the United States. If you attend an examination of a Boston Grammar School, you will find one or more of the blackboards covered with anno-domini dates; and boys and girls will be eager to give you some fact, more or less important, that is associated with every date. But if they were asked by some foreigner, who was just beginning to read our literature, when IRVING was born, or what works he had written, who JONATHAN EDWARDS was, whether COOPER was a greater novelist than Mrs. SOUTHWORTH, whether the Atlantic Monthly was equal in merit to the N.Y. Ledger, and whether EMERSON wrote often for the Waverley Magazine,—what answers would he get? But, surely, in any point of view, a knowledge of our chief poets, historians and essayists is of as much consequence as the opinions and doings of JAMES K. POLK, WM. H. HARRISON, FRANKLIN PIERCE, and similar persons, with which our historic muse is occupied.

One of the grave errors in our system is in the persistent reading and re-reading of books that are intended mainly for exercises in elocution. It is true that many of these series of readers have been compiled by scholars, and contain many admirable selections; although I have seen an advertisement by one publisher who claims as the peculiar glory of *his* set of books that the pieces they contain are mostly original; and yet the name of this writer is in no collection of American authors: as though the style of a mediocre person should be preferred, as a model for students, to the finished sentences and poetic gems of men of genius.

But the best of our school reading-books are merely a kind of literary *hash*; and I am much of the opinion of the Frenchman who had become tired of the mysterious article bearing that name in his boarding-house, and who exclaimed to the landlady: "I do not like 'ashes,—I préfère còlmeat. Please take away ze '*ash*, and give me some còlmeat."

Now reading occupies a part of every day in school and should receive even more attention than it does. But it must be admitted that the miscellanies we place before children—half a dozen in a course—are not, on the whole, very attractive; and they are certainly not useful, considering the time they occupy. On one page is a goodish poem; on another is a bit of a sermon; here a tolerable story; there a speaker's peroration. The facts belong to no one age or country, and the style is as various as the matter. How utterly unphilosophical this proceeding is, either for the acquisition of knowledge or for the formation of taste, this assembly of teachers ought to know.

And this leads to the last point and the main purpose of this brief essay,—which is to urge that the course of daily reading in grammar schools be wholly reformed and utilized, that after two or three preliminary collections have been gone through, and the pupils are able to read with tolerable fluency, the subsequent or higher reading-books be discarded, and their further daily practice be in systematic works that will not only give proficiency in reading, but inspire a love of nature, impart useful knowledge, and cultivate a taste for literature.

A good example has already been furnished in Dr. WORTHINGTON HOOKER'S *Child's Book of Nature*. Dr. ASA GRAY'S treatise entitled *How Plants Grow*

is another of like character. DICKENS'S *Child's History of England* (already mentioned) would be an excellent work for young pupils.

Should the course here recommended be generally adopted, we should very soon find the results of the labors of scientific explorers and savans put into popular and attractive books to meet the demand.

Instruction in English literature should go on with these branches in equal step. Any well-disciplined child of fourteen years (and perhaps less) is ready to receive judicious lessons in this department. For this purpose, it is not necessary to begin with CHAUCER, nor to follow any rigid rule of chronology. BACON and all the philosophers, and TAYLOR and all the theologians, *may wait*. But the teacher can take works of acknowledged merit that are capable of being understood by youths, and lead his charge through pleasant fields until, by imperceptible degrees, they reach the heights. When they have been accustomed to notice peculiarities of style and modes of thought, and have in other respects sufficient maturity of mind, they can trace the development of language historically and view the treasures of our literature as in a panorama.

It will be advisable, in all cases where the means allow, to read certain works entire. Thus, SHAKESPEARE can not be profitably studied by means of selections, but the best of his plays should be read from HUDSON'S or ROLFE'S editions. No separate scenes are either satisfactory or instructive. Other works may be named for thorough reading, such as MILTON'S *Comus*, GOLDSMITH'S *Traveler*, and *Vicar of Wakefield*, LOWELL'S *Vision of Sir Launfal*, LONGFELLOW'S *Evangeline*, WHITTIER'S *Snow-Bound*, EMERSON'S *May-Day*, and one or two of TENNYSON'S *Idyls of the King*.

But all educators know that the cases in which complete works of this kind can be procured in sufficient numbers for the use of a school will be exceptional. And in any event it will be desirable to supplement this course with some volume of selections, arranged in historical order, and containing the necessary biographical, critical and linguistic notes. The benefit of such a course of instruction introduced into the grammar schools, and continued in the high schools, would be incalculable. The teacher would make a daily study of the author from whom the lesson was to be taken. He would fill out the narrow outline of the biography. He would illustrate and refine the critical estimates, giving his own views, and stimulating the pupils to examine for themselves and to form habits of independent judgment. It is doubtful whether any branch of instruction would yield more certain and more abundant fruit.

In my boyhood I never, by any accident, had my attention directed to the beauties or excellences of English literature. *Paradise Lost* was used only for the odious exercise of parsing; and the noblest lines of MILTON are to this day connected with the pattering of conjugations and declensions. No more effectual way could be taken to disenchant the student than by breaking the lines, as upon the wheel, and analyzing the still quivering members by the dull rules of syntax.

In a few modern schools English literature receives attention, but they are generally high schools. The bulk of our children, however, never reach the high schools; and, if they did, there is no reason why the study should not be taken up earlier. Abolish the profitless reading of scrap-books! and let each day's reading be given in turn to some branch of natural science, to history



and to literature. The elements of good reading are few and simple, and these can be attended to *as incidents*. If special practice in elocution is desired, the teacher can make use of the work of Professor MUNROE. Each pupil will show by his voice and manner whether he appreciates what he is reading. The cultivation of natural and proper tones, the adaptation of manner to the style, as in narrative or descriptive prose, and in humorous, pathetic or dramatic verse, will come naturally under the skillful teacher's care.

There can not be too much reading of good authors. No one ever became an elegant or even a correct writer by following the precepts of grammarians, or the prim examples of literary Pharisees, any more than he could learn to swim by practicing the motions upon a table. A knowledge of the structure of our language and the natural relations of its parts, the power of using appropriate imagery, the nice discrimination between apparent synonyms, and the easy, fluent motion in which thought rolls on, can only be acquired by long and intimate acquaintance with the works in which these traits are exemplified.

Experience has proven that even young pupils take up these courses of reading in literature as well as in science with avidity. In schools where they have been introduced no exercises are so eagerly anticipated or so thoroughly enjoyed.

We take great pains to make classical students appreciate the simple majesty of HOMER, the elegance of VIRGIL, the sublimity of the Greek tragedians, and the vigor and brilliancy of HORACE. But the body of English literature, as it exists, contains more of grandeur and beauty, more of pathos and wit, more of humor (a quality in some respects peculiar to our race), more of fervid oratory, and more of noble history, than the stores of the classic languages combined. I am a strenuous advocate for classical education, but I maintain that a boy who feels the greatness of BURKE and of WEBSTER is more apt to acknowledge the power of the Oration on the Crown, and of that for the poet ARCHIAS. He who has been thrilled by the sublimity of MILTON will grow enthusiastic over the pages of VIRGIL and DANTE; and when the vast world of SHAKESPEARE's thought has been opened before his vision, he will see more clearly what is immortal in the Iliad and the Odyssey.

Our own literature must be considered as the best part of our history, and the just basis of our national pride. It may be said to have commenced within the memory of men now living; for the venerable BRYANT is the earliest of our great poets, and IRVING, COOPER and CHANNING were the first of our classical prose writers. In less than fifty years we have produced works in all departments of human thought which the world will not let die, and which our mother country is becoming proud to own and adopt. Let us see to it that our youth are taught properly to appreciate these treasures, and, for that end, let us endeavor to appreciate them more fully ourselves.

The Department adjourned.

MISS D. A. LATHROP, President.

WILLIAM P. HESTON, Secretary.

# NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

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## FIRST DAY.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 6th, 1872.

THE Department was called to order at three o'clock P.M., by its President, C. C. ROUNDS, of Maine, who briefly stated that the object of the work before it, for the sessions, was the consideration of questions of general and national importance, and expressed the wish that the discussions might be as free as possible, for the purpose of bringing out the knowledge acquired by the different members in their experience.

The Secretary of the Section being absent, WARREN T. COPELAND, of Cambridge, Mass., was chosen Secretary *pro tem*.

A paper was read by J. C. GREENOUGH, Principal of State Normal School, Providence, R. I., upon

### THE PROPER WORK OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

No question touching the progress of popular education is of greater importance than "What is the proper work of a normal school?"

Costly buildings, beautiful furniture, convenient apparatus, good text-books, may aid, but our teachers make our schools.

Normal schools are expected to take the lead both in preparing teachers and in improving methods of instruction. They are important sources of professional enthusiasm, and method without enthusiasm is but the rail-track without the locomotive.

The object of our normal schools is to prepare the teachers of our common schools for their work. We evidently need schools of higher grade to prepare teachers for colleges and for other higher institutions of learning, but our existing normal schools are to meet the wants of our common and elementary schools.

The instruction furnished in a normal school must depend in part upon the acquirements and discipline of those admitted, and the time they are to give to professional instruction. It is useless to determine what things should be, and then attempt to proceed as if they were really as they should be.

Every normal school gathers its pupils mainly from its own locality; hence, it is impracticable to fix conditions of admission or a course of study which shall be the same for every school.

The qualifications requisite for admission in any locality should be below the average qualifications required by examining boards of those who are allowed

to teach. Otherwise, there will be a strong tendency to enter upon the work of teaching without the specific preparation gained in a professional school. The condition of the schools which the graduates are to teach should also modify the instruction received during their course of preparation. A superintendent of schools in one of our southern states recently remarked, in one of our educational meetings, that there was nothing to be done in grading the public schools in his section, since all were of the primary grade. In such communities, the training of teachers must have special reference to elementary teaching. But in New England, and elsewhere throughout our land, normal schools should give especial attention to preparation for elementary teaching. I hold that the first and the greatest work that can be accomplished by most of our normal schools is to make good primary-school teachers. I will refer to some of the arguments which may be urged in support of this position.

1. Elementary instruction is especially defective in our schools, and we justly look to normal schools to work a reform.

2. It is a general custom to introduce teachers to schools of higher grade through the teaching of a primary school. However weighty the arguments for putting teachers of the ripest talent in charge of primary schools, for promoting in an order the reverse of the grades, and for graduating pay according to such promotion, the fact remains that a good proportion of those who teach begin in the primary grade.

3. The teaching that a child receives during his earlier years is the most important. The methods, the habits, and the enthusiasm, gained in schools of lower grade go far in determining a pupil's success in schools of higher grade. The motto of HESIOD, "The beginning is half of the whole," here obtains.

4. All the children in our schools must have elementary instruction. The majority of pupils, in many communities, leave school before fairly entering upon a grammar-school course of study. A very small proportion in any of our cities or towns ever complete a high-school course.

We have noticed some things that should be regarded in providing professional instruction for teachers. The laws of mental activity and development should mainly determine the work of a normal school. Teachers have to do with mind. They must understand the human mind, know the appropriate means to be used in its development, and be able to employ those means skillfully.

We speak of the human mind, using names that denote its three modes of manifestation, viz., intellect, sensibilities, will. Every faculty is developed by its own activity occasioned by the use of appropriate means. The activity of the sensibilities and of the will primarily depends upon the activity of the intellect; hence, the teacher's work pertains more immediately to the development of the intellect. The intuitive faculty, the memory, the imagination, the powers by which we generalize and reason, in fact, all other intellectual faculties, are primarily dependent for their activity and development upon the activity of the presentative powers,—those by which we have sensations and perceptions. The materials employed by the other faculties are, for the most part, obtained through the activity of these powers. Upon the

proper development of the presentative powers, and upon the facts gained through their activity, all subsequent acquisition and development largely depend. Therefore, the first duty of the teacher is to secure the activity of the presentative powers of the child by presenting to his mind appropriate objects and in a proper manner. It is the work of the primary teacher so to direct the observation of the child as to lead him to acquire facts important as the sources and the occasions of subsequent knowledge, and valuable as means of mental development. During his earlier school years, the pupil should have lessons on forms, on colors, on numbers, on the measurement of weights, of length, of surfaces and of solids; lessons on the qualities of bodies and of substances should be given; also, lessons on plants, on minerals, and on animals. Preparatory to the study of geography, lessons should be given upon portions of the earth within the sphere of the pupil's observation. Lessons in drawing, and in both oral and written language, should accompany other lessons. Drawing intensifies observation, while it supplements and aids verbal expression. Vocal music and vocal culture should find a place in the course of study of schools of every grade. As the formation of character is the most important work of every teacher, lessons on manners and morals should be given as the conduct of pupils or the objects of study furnish occasions.

But my limits forbid me to outline, even, a course of elementary study; much less to delineate the advanced studies of a grammar or a high school.

The teacher of an elementary course needs to understand clearly just what relation every part of the elementary course holds to the subsequent course of study. He should be no wanderer in the suburbs of science, but from her towers perceive clearly her avenues of approach. The teacher must see the beginning from the end. He must know what facts are occasions of a knowledge of principles, in every department of his elementary teaching, that he may not, as is too often the case, waste time and but confuse the pupil's mind by teaching useless facts. The teacher must also know in what way to present the facts in order that the pupil may have real knowledge and that mental activity which is the source of mental power.

It is evident, then, that success in elementary teaching requires on the part of the teacher a general knowledge, at least, of the sciences to which the facts that make up the elementary course are introductory. The Germans are wise in putting the work of primary instruction into the hands of those who have been liberally educated as well as specially trained for their work.

We will now consider the question, "In what way shall the pupils of a normal school gain the needed knowledge?" I answer, "In the way in which their own pupils are to gain knowledge." Those who are to teach must acquaint themselves with methods of study, in order to direct others in study. Modes of teaching usually determine modes of study.

Teaching is a means of guiding others in study. Modes of teaching may be grouped into three general classes, each including many specific modes.

1. A text-book containing statements of facts, or principles, or both, with or without explanation, is put into the hands of pupils. They study words in order to gain ideas, and in order to reproduce the statements literally or in substance. In this method, the author of the text-book is the teacher. Some

branches may be taught in this way, if the pupil forms in his own mind, as he proceeds, the ideas of which the words of the text-book are signs. The danger is that pupils will memorize words which are to them unmeaning signs. When the object of study can not itself be brought within the sphere of the pupil's consciousness, as in history, for instance, this method of study is allowable.

2. The teacher states to his pupils that which they are to know. This is lecturing. It is telling rather than teaching, though it is often called oral teaching to distinguish it from teaching by text-book alone. The best form of lecturing is that in which the lecturer fixes the attention of the pupils upon the object of study, and then gives expression to the ideas naturally excited by it. Teaching by lectures is not a mode generally adapted to the wants of pupils in an elementary course.

3. The teacher fixes the attention of the pupils upon that which is to be studied, whether material or immaterial, and leads them to state their own ideas in their own language. The statements of the pupils enable the teacher to know whether they have gained correct ideas. In connection with this teaching, the teacher corrects the language of the pupils, thus securing exact and correct language as well as correct ideas. After the lesson has been taught in this way, the pupils are required to prepare for recitation by restudy of the subject or object in the topical order in which they first studied it under the direction of the teacher.

Modes of recitation fall into divisions similar to those of teaching.

1. Pupils may reproduce in reply to questions, or under topics, the statements or the substance of the statements learned from their text-books.

2. Pupils may recite by stating in their own language, and in the order of assigned topics, what they have learned under the direction of the teacher, by their own study.

3. Each pupil may recite by teaching in the same topical order in which the subject or object was first presented to the class by the teacher.

Recitation by actual teaching is the mode which should be practiced by the pupils of a normal school. Other modes may be occasionally adopted, but preparation for teaching comes by actually teaching. The knowledge to be used may be gained in different ways, but professional skill comes by professional drill.

I am aware that it is held in some quarters that professional training may be gained by listening to lectures and observing correct teaching; but neither the accuracy required in military evolutions nor the skill required in teaching comes by observation alone. And the art of teaching, as taught in a normal school, should be something more than an imitative art.

Normal pupils should be so trained that in every step of their teaching they will look through and beyond their specific work to the mind of the pupil. A sound, practical mental philosophy should be taught in every normal school, not so much in the abstract as in its illustrations and applications in every department.

There are positive hindrances in many communities to the maintenance of

schools for practice in connection with a normal school, and there are advantages gained by having each pupil in a normal class teach while the others assume the position of young pupils. (a) Each one can spend more time in practice than if actually in charge of a class of young pupils. (b) The one teaching may be aided by suggestions and by criticisms from the members of the class. (c) There is a better opportunity to discuss modes of teaching and questions of interest.

There should be an abundance and a variety of text-books in a normal school, and the pupils should be taught how to use them so as to profit by the knowledge and experience of others; but in teaching any object to a class, or in teaching the principles of any science, no book should be used in any school. Facts relating to things should be gained by studying the things themselves. Principles constituting science should be developed from facts and truths which the pupil has previously acquired. Rules should be but the natural outgrowth of the pupil's knowledge.

There is no lack of text-books. Many of them are excellent. Elementary instruction requires apparatus. A suitable cabinet of minerals is a greater assistance to pupils in an elementary course of mineralogy than any text-book ever written, provided the teacher understands how to use the minerals in object-lessons. In the study of objects, the objects themselves are well-nigh indispensable.

Colleges need collections, but normal schools need them more. The lack of the requisite materials, perhaps more than any thing else, retards the progress of elementary instruction throughout our land. If normal instruction is what it ought to be, it will realize to the pupils the necessity of collections and other apparatus in their own schools, and will make normal graduates influential in supplying this want of our common schools.

The government of a normal school should be such as is best adapted to lead the pupils to govern themselves, for self-government will prepare them to govern others. Whatever contributes to their success in teaching will tend to diminish the necessity of using the means of government in their schools. Right methods and enthusiasm in teaching may so direct the activity of pupils that they shall forget during school hours all else than school work.

We have spoken of the work of the normal school in securing the intellectual preparation of the teacher. The sources of a teacher's power are in his sensibilities rather than in his intellect. Let us notice some ways in which the emotional nature may be made to minister most effectively to one's success in teaching. First, by æsthetic culture. We do not possess the treasures of art found in Europe, but in our fauna and flora and mineral products we have a wealth of natural objects such as are found in no other country. These should be used not merely for purposes of scientific study and as means of intellectual development, but also as means of æsthetic culture. Cabinets of specimens, tastefully arranged, have a constant value in addition to their scientific use.

As a people, we are just beginning to find out the industrial and the æsthetic value of elementary drawing. As a means of æsthetic culture, it has not that place in our normal schools which it deserves. The motto of APOLLO, "*nulla dies sine linea*," should find a place in the normal school as well as in the studio

of the artist. Music should be better appreciated as a means of æsthetic culture.

Another source of æsthetic culture, English literature, is within the reach of every pupil of our normal schools. This fountain of thought and feeling is to be opened to the mind of a pupil not by the acquisition of the historical facts of literature, but by the exhaustive and loving study of the best productions of the great masters,—representative men of the periods in which they lived. Our normal schools no less than our colleges should become repositories of literature and art. The absence of art in our common schools but renders it more necessary that our teachers, during their period of preparation, should not lack the means of æsthetic culture. If the teacher's æsthetic nature is properly cultivated, he will evoke order and neatness from the most uncomely surroundings. He will find means to increase his pupils' love of the beautiful.

Through the perception of beauty, children, as well as those who are older, are led to a better appreciation of the works of God, and hence to a better appreciation of his character. The beautiful and the good hold divine companionship, and the children in our public schools will be more surely trained to become noble and excellent in their lives when our teachers shall be better able to appreciate the beautiful, whether in nature or in art, and better able to employ, in their own schools, the means of æsthetic culture.

Again, the normal pupil should be led to choose teaching as his life-work. One's emotions press in full and continued current only toward the accomplishment of a life-purpose. Our profession has been belittled by those who have been mere hucksters of knowledge in order to get money enough to take up some other employment. The nature of a teacher's work forbids temporary and half-hearted efforts. It demands that strength of emotion that is born of unreserved devotion.

In order that the emotional nature of those who are preparing to teach may be fully enlisted, they must also appreciate the teacher's work in its relations to the highest welfare of the individual and of society. Formal lectures, noisy declamation, reiterated cant, will not do this. Normal pupils must be taught that right thinking is inseparable from right acting. In every part of their course, in the simplest elementary lessons even, they must be led to see that right modes of study and of teaching tend directly to form those habits of thought and action which insure individual excellence and social virtue. A work is great to us in proportion as we appreciate its direct tendency to produce the highest and broadest results.

Another condition of that emotional power without which the most complete intellectual preparation leaves a teacher cold and ineffective in moulding the youthful character is the cherishing of a high ideal of the true teacher. We form ideals of human excellence, not from abstract propositions, but by the aid of human examples. HADYN's genius was born of the admiration he entertained for HANDEL. TYNDALL tells us that he was not lured to the labors of the laboratory by science, but by the personal impress of men of genius. FRANKLIN attributed his eminence and his usefulness to the personal influence of COTTON MATHER, whose works he read. LUTHER discerned what he might become while pondering upon the life of HUSS the reformer. Teachers, too, must form their ideal by the contemplation of the lives and the character of ==

such teachers as ARNOLD of Rugby. The highest ideal possible for the human mind comes by the reverent contemplation of Him who, in his human life, gave us a perfect example of a true teacher.

I may add, if it has not been already implied, that the moral and religious nature of the normal pupil must be enlisted in his vocation in order that his own powers may receive their best development, and that those who shall become his pupils may be trained for the right discharge of the duties of life.

Teaching, in its moral relations, is a sacred work, and its duties can not be well performed unless the teacher is a conscious sharer of a divine love and sympathy—a love that will discover germs of excellence in the dullest pupil, and a sympathy that will bring those germs to flower and to fruitage.

#### DISCUSSION.

*The President.* The discussion of the subject just presented to you will be opened by Mr. A. G. BOYDEN, Principal of the Bridgewater Normal School, in Massachusetts.

#### REMARKS OF MR. A. G. BOYDEN.

Mr. President, I have listened with great interest to the paper which has just been presented to us, and I heartily indorse the position taken in that paper. If our normal schools can accomplish the work there indicated, they will certainly meet the wants of the time. It seems to me that the normal school must be regarded as professional in its work. It has a special work to accomplish not accomplished by any other class of schools, and that special work is no less than to teach its pupils how to educate a child; I wish you to mark that, I say, to educate a child. The highest ideal of many teachers is just to go into the school-room, take a text-book, and ask questions, listen to the answers given by the pupil, and see if he rightly commits them to memory. There is a vast amount of that work going on now, all over our land. Many young teachers have no higher idea of a teacher's work than to accomplish that. I say the special work of the teacher is to educate a child, and to educate his whole being, physical, intellectual and moral, so far as the school may do this. And this is to be done not with a single child, but with many. The teacher has to work in the school, he has to take a company of children and carry forward that work with all at the same time. He must therefore know how to organize a school; and here is one part of the proper work of the normal school, to teach its pupils how to organize a school. For it is a matter of fact that in our district schools in country towns, away from large centres and well-organized committees, the whole work of organizing the school is left in the hands of the teacher, and the committee does not even come to the school-room at the beginning of the session to introduce a new teacher to his or her pupils; he must go a perfect stranger, introduce himself, take the school as he finds it, and organize it without any help from the committee or any one else. Here is a young, inexperienced teacher, who never has taught a school before, who comes and takes a company of children, and is required to put that school in good condition; and committees come round at the end of the term, and expect good results; expect results that come from mature judg-



ment and long experience, and are not satisfied if they are not forthcoming. Therefore, one very important part of the work of the normal school is to teach pupils how to organize: what it is to organize a school; the advantages of good organization; how they are to be secured, and the preliminary work to be done before going into the school; classifying the school; the management of the exercises of the school as to time or length; a just distribution of time among the different subjects to be studied, and various other matters known to the practical teacher. The young teacher needs to have instruction on these points. It is true that in the normal school only a little of what is needed by a teacher can be given, yet many of the results of experience, and much help, may be given. Here is one part of the work.

Again, the teacher must govern the school. Another important part of the normal-school work, therefore, is to teach the the pupils of the normal school what it is to govern a school; what government is; what government requires in the ruler, and what it requires in the subject; how obedience is to be gained, and what motives can be used to obtain it; what influence the arrangement of the exercises of the school has, and what influence the proper management on the part of the teacher has in securing this end. These are special topics requiring special consideration; and they do not come up in the course of study in any other kind of school; they are properly part of the normal-school course.

A third part of the work in the normal-school course is to teach the pupils how to teach, how to give instruction. Not only is the school organized and controlled, but the pupils are to be taught intellectually, and through the intellect the sensibilities and the will and the conscience are to be reached, and called into activity, and developed. And here opens a broad field of work, and Mr. GREENOUGH has very well indicated the nature of the work. I can not go into the details here, for the art of teaching requires a great many qualifications; I can merely specify a few in this connection. First, I think the teacher must know the mind, as was said in the paper: he must know what the powers of the mind are, and how they are called into exercise; the laws of mental activity. If we would lead, we must know these. If we would so approach others, so present a subject to them that they will be willing to have us lead, we must go to them in a way to engage their attention, which will make them willing to follow. It requires no little tact, no little address and skill, to do this. I say that one can not properly educate a child unless he knows what its powers are, and how to approach it. Many young teachers make mistakes, and fatal mistakes, in their efforts to instruct, simply because they do not know how to approach their pupils. They are not acquainted with the sensibilities, how they influence the action of the intellect and control the whole nature. They do not know how to reach the will when it is acting in the opposite direction from what they would have the pupil follow. They do not know how to approach their pupils so as to influence them to obey, the first lesson for the pupil to learn. I think they fail because they do not know how their own minds act, neither have they studied the minds of the pupils to know how to reach them. This knowledge of human nature, it seems to me, is the first condition of the success of every teacher in whatever grade of school. Therefore I say we can not too highly magnify the importance of this study of psychology, by which I mean —

the study of the intellect, the sensibility, the will, and the conscience; the whole spirit of a man; the mental part.

If the teacher would succeed, he must have a knowledge of what he is to teach also, and the laws of mind will indicate the method of his teaching; they must. If any one thinks to go contrary to the laws of mind, he simply finds failures as the result. The more closely we follow the laws of mind in our efforts to lead, the more sure we are of success. I think careful observation verifies this statement in every respect. Then there must be a more careful and thorough teaching of the subjects to be taught in the public schools; and we must teach the right method of teaching them, for the method of teaching will determine the method of study in the pupil; determine the degree of mental effort he will put forth in getting his lesson; determine the degree of development the pupil will have in the school work. We must, therefore, I think, give very close and careful attention to the principles and methods of teaching. I agree fully with the statement made by Mr. GREENOUGH, that the recitation should be by actual teaching. I know it is said by some that if a person has the ability to teach in him, and has seen good teaching, he will be able to teach well. As well might we say that a young man standing beside a carpenter's bench, and seeing a skilled carpenter use the fore-plane or joiner, or other tools there, could learn to use these without making a blunder, that he could learn to make any thing he wanted to make by simply looking on, as to say that a person can learn how to teach by simply seeing another. The fact is, we do not observe when we look at others in teaching, we do not see what is essential to success until we try to teach ourselves and find the point wherein we fail to succeed. Then we watch another who is skillful and see how he succeeds. Now every day, in every recitation, then, I would introduce something of this work; lessons given as indicated in the paper topically, with so much oral teaching as is necessary to put the subject distinctly before the pupil's mind, so that he knows what to study and how to study it. When one of the pupils teaches his class, the other members will look on, listen, and criticise, and he will get the benefit of the sharp criticism of his classmates, and they may contribute something which has escaped his notice, so each will help the other. Every member of the class in that way will contribute, and the teacher has only to sit by and let the work go on when he has properly stimulated his pupils and shown them how to work. I believe this to be a very important feature in normal-school work; very important indeed.

One other point mentioned in the paper, also—there are many others I should like to speak upon, but I must not take the time that belongs to others here,—is this: we must, in our normal-school work, as a matter of the highest importance, form in our pupils' minds a just estimate of what it is to educate a child, and stir in them an enthusiasm for the work. As was truly said in the paper, we do not have the motive to the highest success until we have the right end before us, and are determined to secure it. We want, therefore, a just estimate of what this work of education is, and this is to be inspired in the pupils of the normal school by the work of the normal school, from the beginning to the end. I think when pupils first go into the normal school they should be put right to this work of actual teaching in the recitations, and, by a course of philosophical teaching, and seeing each other teach, they will learn,

in a good measure, how to teach themselves. Then teach them the philosophy of what they have learned, and they will be able to appreciate and understand it; they will see why it was they were led along this course; why they required to see the color and form and smell the odor, etc. I take it, the summary of it is this: we are to give in our normal schools the just idea of what it is to be a true teacher, and then prepare our pupils in the best possible manner for all this work of organizing, controlling and teaching the schools.

*Dr. Levenson*, of Hanover, N. Germany, late of New York, followed. He thought the object of teaching was to make the pupils good citizens. Very little was done in our schools to fit them for their duties as members of society. A grave omission in our normal schools was a practical teaching of the way in which the future mechanic, lawyer or capitalist might earn his daily bread. The recent strikes of New-York City had taken \$30,000,000 out of the pockets of the laboring men; and children ought to be taught so that they would not enter into such attempts. It is as easy to teach these things as to teach astronomy or mathematics, and if taught, they would almost revolutionize society. He had tried what he could to introduce these studies to New-York teachers, but political corruptions prevented their success, and he judged he ought to have tried New England in stead.

*Grenville T. Fletcher*, of Castine, Maine, was the next speaker. He thought it important that pupils should be taught their relations to the community in which they live, as the last speaker had suggested, and this is done to some extent. An enthusiasm in the profession of teaching should be inculcated in normal schools as a basis of success in a teacher's life.

On motion of Mr. PHELPS, of Minnesota, the discussion was suspended at this point, to permit the reading of a paper prepared by General S. C. ARMSTRONG, of Hampton, Virginia, upon

#### NORMAL-SCHOOL WORK AMONG THE FREEDMEN.

Of the five million six hundred and forty-three thousand (5,643,000) illiterate persons over ten years of age in the United States, four million one hundred and eighty-nine thousand (4,189,000), are in the Southern States: of the latter, the whites number one million five hundred and sixteen thousand (1,516,000); the colored, two million six hundred and seventy-one thousand (2,671,000), of whom more than half are females.

This two and a half millions of utterly ignorant freedmen includes four hundred and eighty-five thousand (485,000) youth between the ages of ten and twenty-one, and probably not less than seven hundred and fifty thousand (750,000) teachable children.

During the past ten years the whole annual educational outlay for the freedmen has been at the rate of eighty-five cents for each child, while in 1870 Massachusetts expended for each child of her school population twenty and <sup>16</sup>/<sub>100</sub> dollars (\$20.66); and the magnificent efforts made to establish, by private charity, and national aid, a system of common schools in the South have resulted in exhaustion of resources, inadequate results, and have proved the necessity of wiser methods. It may be well to note that northern aid has

amounted to about three million dollars; the outlay of government for the strictly educational needs of the freedmen has not exceeded three and a half million dollars.

The states are now providing by taxation for systems of common schools, and benevolence guided by experience, as well as stimulated by patriotism, is building up, at well-chosen points, training schools to meet the overwhelming demand for colored teachers, and furnish what the South most needs, and cannot, in her exhausted condition, provide, without admitting the negro to her white schools of high grade, which she will not do for generations.

The right point of contact, then, between northern aid and southern needs is in the normal schools; your wealth must build them up, and your ranks of well-fitted teachers must furnish volunteers to do the needed work.

State support means state control, and, in the present fever heat of political feeling, no greater misfortune could befall southern institutions than to share the fortunes of any political party; throw them upon the state, and you might throw them away. Independence is essential; we entreat you to help us stand on our own ground, so that we may do our work as it ought to be done.

The following facts must be considered by those who would do this work wisely.

Ignorance is not the worst misfortune of the negro: a few years' of general instruction would remove that difficulty. Low ideas of honor and morality, want of foresight and energy, and vanity, are his chief misfortunes. Deficiency of character, rather than ignorance, is the leading fact to be considered in his education.

He is capable of acquiring knowledge to any degree, and, to a certain age, at least, with about the same facility as white children; but he lacks the power to assimilate or digest it.

The negro matures sooner than the white man, but has not his steady development of mental strength up to advanced years. He is a child of the tropics, and the differentia of races go deeper than the skin.

His mechanical faculty works quickly and outstrips his understanding. He will read a passage wonderfully well, but not be able to state the "gist" of it in his own language.

The colored race is the most docile and plastic in the world; habitually polite, but some times sulky and sullen; full of kindly instincts, but capable of a blind fury; heartily trustful of tried friends, though extremely suspicious in general, and, above all, has a keen sense of justice, to regard which is a leading duty of its teachers. In devotion to study, the freedmen are enthusiastic, and in this, and in most respects, the best of their youth are as desirable inmates of an institution of learning as can be found any where.

Our higher southern schools for negroes can, and should, have better discipline and more earnest students than any college in Massachusetts.

Experience in the south, and in missionary work all over the world, has shown that men are best elevated by teachers of their own class under wise supervision. Educated Sandwich-Islanders are to-day not only the instructors of their own race, but have carried the Bible and Spelling-book to thousands of degraded beings in all parts of the great Polynesian Archipelago.

There is a great and growing demand for colored teachers and colored schools;

they are not obnoxious to southern men, and, indeed, are the only available agency for the regeneration of their race. Southern whites will not, as a rule, teach negroes, and there are insuperable obstacles and strong objections to a general supply of northern teachers. To-day ex-slaveholders are most earnest applicants for negro teachers, offering school-houses, fair wages, and protection and able advocates of free schools are found among those who fought under the Confederate flag.

What the negro needs most and what he needs at once is elementary and industrial education. The race will succeed or fail as it shall devote itself with energy to agriculture and the mechanic arts, or avoid those pursuits; and its teachers ought to be men inspired with the spirit of hard work, and acquainted with the ways that lead to material success.

If this be true, then an imitation of northern models will not do. Right methods of work at the South must be created, not copied; yet the underlying principle is every where the same. Power, character, manhood, is the ultimate end of education, of experience, and of life. The best, most practical training is that of the faculties that should guide and direct all the others—the moral and religious part of our nature.

The normal school for freedmen should be religious, not sectarian; though it would better be sectarian than be indifferent to this vital matter. The deep religious nature of the African is capable of the finest development. Spiritual force being the first condition of success upon the higher plane of work, there is no reason why the negro race should not furnish some of the best, because most enthusiastic, teachers of the world.

President CHADBOURNE, of Williams College, said in his late inaugural address, "The most practical thing in the world is a well-trained mind." The end of a right course of study is, I believe, thus indicated. It is more important that a teacher think clearly than that he read Latin well.

The spirit and method of study is of more consequence than what is studied. At the Hampton Normal School, in Virginia, we do not teach the classics, because there is not time for them, and because a little learning of this kind would rather stimulate vanity than encourage a true and scholarly spirit.

The negro needs logic and a good mental digestion. I think that the branches which cultivate the reasoning powers are especially adapted to freedmen's training-schools, and that a faithful study of these will well fit them for the simple and self-denying life-work of instructing little children, as well as for the varied and responsible duties that must devolve upon the teachers of a race in the early stages of civilization.

A danger of the race is in the subjection of reason to feeling: of all people they are most readily moved by impulse; they have heat without light, and therefore need thorough drill, constant use of the understanding and reasoning faculties, and repeated exercises in conveying instruction to others. These may be applied through a wide range of studies: no one particular course can be pointed out as better than any other. The most satisfactory teaching I ever did was an oral rendering of President HOPKINS'S "Twelve Lectures on Moral Science." It was, in effect, the study of Man; and the eagerness and appreciation of our negro students, shown in the year's steady pursuit of this science, has been a constant wonder and delight. I believe there is no topic better

adapted than this to strengthen the thinking powers, and give tone and force to character by making clear the relations of man in the order of creation and as an accountable being.

Admitting and urging the necessity of a certain amount of mental furniture—a stock in trade—for those who would meet successfully the many demands upon a teacher—even of the smallest children—for an easily-exhausted teacher soon loses the respect of his pupils,—I would, for practical purposes, lead colored youth through the elements of mental and moral science, which, rightly explained, are always simple and lift the life to a plane of clear thinking and of sound ideas whence it will never descend. For manhood there is nothing better than the study of man, save the practice of the manly virtues.

Curiosity is a strong trait in negro character, and finds in the natural sciences peculiar gratification. With suitable apparatus, a good teacher is encouraged by the closest attention, and by the enthusiasm of pupils who drink in with delight the truths of chemistry and natural philosophy. It is true of these and of other branches that a recitation is some times a festival.

You northern teachers have little idea of the glow and the inspiration in the work of a "nigger teacher."

We would not exchange places with the most favored of you all.

In mathematics colored youth are, I think, capable of indefinite progress. At Hampton they go relatively further in this branch than in any other. Algebra and Geometry are included in the course. A peculiarity is that they are unequal: some days they seem to have forgotten all they have learned; at times they excel themselves. Recitations depend somewhat upon the weather. These people are constantly victimized through their ignorance of business methods, and are usually careless and inefficient in such matters. Every student ought to know how to make out a bill, a promissory note, give a proper receipt, and be familiar with the ways of buying and selling land. A business education is conducive to honesty and promotes thrift and success. Notwithstanding their imitative faculty and quickness to catch inflections, they—boys especially—find difficulty in the mechanical part of reading. In truth, written English is a foreign tongue to the freedmen—they grow up without use of it, they are destitute of a literature, books and papers having almost no circulation among them; their ideas are bounded by the visible horizon, and their language is the dialect of an isolated people cut off from what cultivation may exist about them.

The teacher of book-English has a heavy task, and facility in reading is acquired only by years of practice.

Beginning with children when quite young, it is different; they learn to read easily, and many southern teachers have compared their classes favorably with those they had previously taught in the North.

The negro's voice is of excellent quality, and his ear is good: music is his most natural expression. The colored race has a passion for rhythm and harmony—the factory-hand, the boatman, the pea-nut peddler, all sing at their labor. The overseers knew that the work swung along faster to the cadence of music which translated toil into pleasure, which gave negro life all its bright colors, and broke the gloom of slavery.

The sufferings and longings of their bondage were expressed in "negro spirituals" of whose beauty, richness and power we have only begun to learn.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE once said to the students at Hampton, "Such songs as you have sung to-day constitute the only American music. Cherish them, and be proud of them."

It has been said, "Thought wedded to music is enforced, intensified. The songs of our childhood are never forgotten; they become the constituents of the soul."

Our normal-school training should provide musical instruction, and every graduate ought to know how to teach selections from the best Sunday-school and choral songs. In this way a wealth of noble Christian sentiment can be stored up in the minds of colored youth who are going out to meet temptation of every kind, and perform a serious duty as citizens of the country.

With the freed people music is the only adequate interpreter of the past, and offers for their future a lifting, inspiring force not half appreciated.

Since the mind grows in its own way like a tree, and is not built up like a house, since regular, patient study of any thing strengthens all the faculties, and since the pupil's own strong resolve for an education is worth more to him than all the normal schools in the world, it seems to me that our southern training schools need first of all to be directed by men of wisdom and experience, not bound by prescribed methods, and aided by the ablest teachers. In view of the terrible disadvantages of the negro, and of his sad inheritance from the past, the most competent instructors should devote themselves to his regeneration.

At Hampton we have called to our aid the best teachers of the Westfield Normal School, of Vassar College, and other institutions, and our claim to their services has been admitted. We want those whom you want,—only we need them more.

The Freedmen's Normal School is a pioneer institution. You at the North are the reserves of our civilization, raising the supplies and guarding the forts. The southern teacher is at the front. The colored student does not come to us bred in the atmosphere of a Christian home and community; but too often with the inheritance of a debased nature, and with all his wrong tendencies unchecked either by innate moral sense or by good domestic influence. The latter it is ours to supply, and the teacher's work outside of the school-room is as important as that within it.

The morale of negro society is terrible. What in enlightened communities would be the death-blow to a woman's reputation is there a mild misfortune.

At Hampton we do not begin with books, but with the body. The student must bathe twice a week, take care of his own room, and be inspected daily as to person and quarters.

He is too poor to pay board-bills: shall we help him, or let him help himself? We have chosen the latter plan, and have given him a chance to work out his expenses in the printing-office, the carpenter's shop, or on the farm, and the farm products are sold in the markets of Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston.

The young women are taught to make clothing, which is sold in various markets, and to do the work of the kitchen, dining-room, and laundry. All are

paid by the hour at the rate of from four ten cents, according to the kind of work done.

The advantages of the industrial system are manifold, making it, in my opinion, essential to a thorough training school for freedmen, if not for all classes of people. The chief objection is on the ground of expense: the industries are at a great disadvantage, and are apt to lose money, although the last year at Hampton was most encouraging financially. The higher the result, the greater is likely to be the cost.

The real financial question as to manual-labor schools is this: Shall the expense of teaching a student a trade, and of making him self-reliant and manly, be met in the same way as is that of teaching him mathematics and Greek? It may cost twice as much to train the hands and head together as to train the head alone.

When this is understood, and people care enough for educated laborers and complete manhood to pay their cost, they will have industrial schools and will get the worth of their money.

The system is complicated; there is constant friction between labor and study; and only capacity and energy can insure the end desired. At Hampton one-fifth of the school time is taken for work, students working one whole school day, each week besides Saturdays. Their progress is not seriously retarded. Under pressure the rate of study is increased.

With this method, there may be less of mathematics, but more manhood.

Poor students can be educated without being pauperized, for none are made objects of charity. The discipline of hard work keeps away the indolent, but attracts the determined and deserving, endows the graduate with a spirit of self-reliance and of manliness, and provides him with resources that will insure his success in the world. Out of poverty comes strength; victory awaits the man who fights it out with only himself on his side.

Labor must be required of all; non-workers being an aristocracy ruinous to manual-labor schools.

Under this system the graduate becomes more than a pedagogue. He becomes a civilizer, able not only to encourage the young idea, but to work to advantage the exhausted lands about him, and by example and precept to teach right ideas of life and duty.

Such men are needed for a race whose greatest danger is in the bad leadership of demagogues, whose chief temptation is to get a living by something else than hard work, and whom the bait of office has too often allured from honest, useful lives.

The colored race, like every race, can secure for itself an honorable position only by toil. Its destiny is not yet assured; it is on trial; its future will be determined by its leaders.

An elaborate course of study, making them polished scholars, would unfit our graduates for the hog-and-hominy fare and lowly cabin life that awaits most of the workers in our poor and sparsely-settled country. A three or four years' course commencing with the rudiments, requiring of beginners a knowledge of reading and writing and the first rules of arithmetic, and embracing, among other things, the elements of grammar, mathematics, science, and history, is enough.



There is such a thing as over-education; it is like rigging a ship heavily without ballasting her. This must be a guarded point in a school which is intended to be a means to an end.

The normal-school graduate of the South should be of the people—above them, yet of them—in order to make natural or probable a life-long service in their behalf. A highly-educated negro is as little likely as a highly-educated white man to do a work against which his tastes and sensibilities would every day rebel. If we depend upon the lofty missionary spirit that leads the best of men and women to devote themselves to the lowly, we shall find at home, as we do abroad, few laborers in a wide harvest-field.

The following qualifications, among others, we expect from the graduates of our school:

Ability to teach the rudiments of knowledge in the best manner.

Capacity to govern youth and inspire them with a love for their studies.

Character and behavior fitted to influence the communities in which they live, and to destroy prejudice.

An intelligent purpose to advocate temperance, thrift, and education.

Power to distinguish between the true and the false lights that surround and confuse the minds of the people.

Willingness to labor in Sunday schools and in the spread of Christian morality and Bible truth.

This is not asking too much of the best class of colored youth. They are adapted to teaching; are quick to imitate good teachers; they find in this occupation better pay than in any other open to them. Solicitations to leave it are feeble, except some times from political quarters, and prejudice and persecution are no longer serious obstacles.

The colored teacher is looked up to for his wisdom, is often chosen magistrate or other local dignitary, and is some times the only source of information from the outside world.

An old negro once said of a young colored girl who taught in a most benighted place on the "Eastern Shore," both in public and Sunday schools, and read the papers to the people who could not read, and was president of their "Good-Samaritan" society, "She is an angel to us."

We could not ask better material or prospects: we only ask support in our work.

Virginia to-day should have three hundred good colored teachers, and can not get them.

North Carolina requires quite as many, and the need is increasing faster than the supply.

Justice and the welfare of our country demand that means be supplied adequate to lift the illiterate masses of the South to a degree of intelligence suited to their needs, and sufficient to prevent those social and political combinations of ignorant men that are unquestionably the most threatening danger of our future.

The Anglo-Saxon is the embodiment of force, and throngs the ways that lead to success of every kind. The negro, with the chains of centuries just fallen from his limbs, stretches out his hands in passionate entreaty for a little help,

for light to see. Without force, in mental darkness, emancipation is so far but a physical, not a moral fact.

He does not cry for food and clothes; four millions of ex-slaves have thrown scarcely a pauper upon the country. The old slave's dream of forty acres and a mule is of the past. He is meeting his fate manfully, and only asks for work and schools.

Give him fair wages and good instruction, and the negro question will be settled; this generation will have done the duty assigned to it by God who gave us the victory, and the greatest moral triumph of the century will be accomplished.

The negro has falsified the predictions of his enemies, and dispelled the fears of his friends. They said he would give himself to riot and plunder; but he earned the gratitude of the South by his fidelity to the family and the plantation, while his master was fighting against his freedom. They said the freed-men would not work; but he raised in one year nearly four million bales of cotton. They ridiculed "Sambo" in uniform; but the steady lines at Petersburg and the charge at Fort Wagner attest his heroism.

What grander enterprise could there be than to take up the cause of a race like this—the pariahs of the peoples—distrusting their old guides and suspecting their present leaders, and prepare for them with timely zeal, and by wise methods, an army of educators who shall give tone to their character, direction to their ideas, and, by moulding the now plastic material, secure a well-laid and solid foundation, upon which the workmen of the future shall build to the honor of the race and of the nation, and to the glory of God.

After the reading of Gen. ARMSTRONG's paper, Miss ANNA C. BRACKETT, of New York, presented the following paper.

#### THE AMERICAN NORMAL SCHOOL.

Man is characterized and distinguished by his power of carrying on the process of synthesis and generalization. In this he takes up into one whole, rejecting accidental details, all previous results, and considers these, upon which he has spent so much effort, well employed, if they will serve only as the minutest part of a new conclusion. And this, again, is good only to be used as material for another. He is always at work, as it were, in the quarry. To the animal, no problem exists, because all problems have been solved for him by infinite intelligence, whose results the animal ignorantly works out. The bee is only a reflection of the infinite thought as it shapes its cell, the ant as it excavates its winding galleries, the beaver as it builds its dam, the coral zoöphyte as it buds and grows from its parent stem. But all these are unconscious in their reflection, and repeat the same perfect result, century after century. Man alone gathers together the results of his previous work, and uses so much of them as are by him recognized to be a part of the divine thought—as much of them as are Truth—the condensed essence of the work of all the years before.

The result of such a process we have in the laws of science, the rules of art, the maxims of political economy, the codes of ethics, and the established formulæ of all professions.

For what are these but the condensed results of the experience of man in these departments ever since he has existed? He has always found himself face to face with problems, which he has solved, but from every solution has stepped forth a new problem. Each question devours itself and seeks again for food with a larger demand; and when man finds, not a disappointment, but his highest satisfaction, in detecting the new and more difficult problem as the final result of his work, does he most clearly testify to his divine and immortal nature.

But man is not only an individual, the heir to his own individual results, but, as a member of the human family, has a birthright to its heritage of culture and results. The philosophers of the Rousseau school are the most self-contradictory of all in their demand that each shall work out these results for himself. Had they been educated on their own plan, they would never have proceeded far enough to make their own demand. As the son of the English nobleman is not ashamed, but proud, to hold his estates from a long line of ancestors, receiving the accumulated benefits of centuries for his own, as the strongest testimony that he is a lineal representative of that family, so should the reasonable man not unwillingly, but proudly, receive the inheritance of culture, the offering of which is an acknowledgment of his kinship to all the greatest and the best. Only the shallow can refuse to accept his legacy, and the soul of every real reformer must be

Touched with reverence deep and true  
For the lessons of the past,  
Where the lives of priest and sage,  
Half-said truths of every age,  
Are our heritage at last.

But, as the English nobleman inherits not only the principles conferred by the Magna Charta and the conveniences, protection and luxuries which are the results of the civilization of the whole English nation, but also the wide fields and lofty castle which belong to his special family; so, while every man receives, in a sense, as his inheritance, the results of the labor of all the world, each profession has its own special riches. As members of the profession of teaching, our patrimony is rich, and our descent ancient and noble indeed; for, although we might recognize *all* great men, of whatever profession, as, in a certain sense, world-teachers, we can, assuredly, without fear of counter-assertions, claim in our own, in unbroken line, SOCRATES, PLATO, and ARISTOTLE. Least of all can we afford to disregard our heritage. Least of all can we afford to neglect the gathered wisdom of the centuries. The great principles of education—the great laws depending upon the nature of the human being, through whose guidance by gradual steps he must be led from his state of entire dependence at birth to entire independence, and the conscious possession of himself—these it is the special function of the normal school to teach. In other words, as our system of public schools, crowned by the college, is supposed to give to its student a digest of the general information gained by the world up to that point of time, and then to dismiss him to the study or practice of the general principles acquired, in their special applications; so the normal school should give to its graduates the garnered results of the Science of Education and its rules as an art as obtained up to the present time, and then send its pupils forth to their application in particular schools.

It is the modern tendency, especially in America, to undervalue regular courses of education and to approve of what is called self-education: in general, we are pointed to those who are not college graduates, and who are, nevertheless, celebrated men; and in special, to those who have had no professional training and who are yet successful teachers. But I think no one will deny the truth of the following words, which I quote from an eminent authority.

"The self-taught man has often true talent and even genius, to whose development, however, inherited culture has been denied, and he may, by good fortune, through his own strength, work his way into a field of labor. But even if he has for years studied and practiced much, he is still haunted by a feeling of uncertainty as to whether he has yet reached the stand-point at which a science, an art, or a trade, will publicly receive him—of so very great consequence is it that men should be comprehended and recognized by man. The self-taught man, therefore, remains embarrassed, and is never free from the apprehension that he may expose some weak point to an adversary who is thoroughly educated—or, he falls into the other extreme: he becomes presumptuous, steps forth as a reformer, and if he accomplishes nothing, or earns only ridicule, he sets himself down as a martyr, unrecognized by an unappreciative and unjust world.

"It is possible that the self-taught man may be on the right track, and may accomplish as much or even more than one trained in the usual way. In general, however, it is very desirable that every man should go through the regular course, the inherited means of education—partly that he may be thorough in the elements, partly to free him from the anxiety which he feels, lest he, in his solitary efforts, spend labor on some superfluous work—superfluous because done long before, but of which, through the accident of his want of culture, he had not heard."

We shall probably not require much time to recall to our minds instances of the last-mentioned waste of labor among our own fraternity; and those of us who may have been obliged to try in our schools experiments which we knew had repeatedly failed in others—or, who have avoided trying them only by wearying arguments with committees who presented to us plans to them new and attractive, but to us old, and known to have been long since tried and found wanting—those of us who have expended in such contests the energy which would have been much better spent in our teaching, will need no other enforcement of the truth of our author's words. It were, perhaps, unreasonable to expect that school-committees should inform themselves of what has been done and established in education, before they state so positively what *should* be done; but it is not unreasonable to hope that the time will come when every diplomad graduate of every normal school shall have some fair knowledge of the history of education in the past and the laws which that history has evolved.

In the truth of our author's words lies the ground for the establishment of normal schools, and, to make once more the general statement, it is the special work of the normal school, first, to present to its pupils, as far as they are able to take them—much farther than they are able then fully to comprehend them,—the ripened results of all the thought of the world on the subject of

education. These should be in the form of principles which the pupil should be taught to reverence as the net result of the thought of the past, and their meaning should be unfolded so that he may square his future teaching by them, in faith, till sight shall come with years of experience. The normal school should give him these without stint, for they are the food on which he will grow, and it should make him familiar with the names of the most trusted authorities on the subject; secondly, it should give him also, but more cautiously, special methods and mechanical rules on which he can rely at the beginning of his work, as the generalizations of successful practice. Otherwise, he will be forced to spend in experimenting much time that the normal school should save for him.

Such is the special work, so far as direct instruction goes, of the normal school, wherever it may be. America presents, however, phases and problems elsewhere unknown, and it is to these that we must now turn our attention in order to fix more definitely the work of the American Normal School.

In the first place, more than in any other country is education in America evidently destined to be mainly left to the hands of women; not only in the direct management of school-rooms, but also in the higher sphere of directive intelligence. The number of women teachers in the public schools of the United States was, in 1870, nearly twice as great as that of the men; and not only was this so, but in those states which are universally recognized as the leaders in the work of education the proportion was much greater. For instance, in Michigan and New York, 3 to 1; in Connecticut, 3.5 to 1; in Maine, 4 to 1; while in New Hampshire they were 5 to 1; and in Massachusetts, always foremost of all, the numbers stood nearly 7 to 1; and the proportion is indisputably daily increasing, more and more, as the colleges and universities open their doors, giving to woman a chance for the general education she so much needs; and, as one woman after another demonstrates her ability successfully and wisely to direct others, the principalships are held by them. This is a very important step in its indirect results, for, as no fire will burn if the chimney is closed at the top, so it does not require much wisdom to see that no flame of aspiration can exist among assistants who have never a hope that they can become principals, even supposing they make themselves equal to the task; and how comparatively futile must be the attempts of the able men who constitute the one-seventh of the teachers to make the standard, while their efforts are dragged down by the dead weight of the six-sevenths below.

In St. Louis, leaving out the colored schools, besides the 21 schools of 2, 4, 7, 8 and 9 rooms and a larger number of teachers, directed by 21 woman principals, two of the largest first-grade schools of 12 rooms are managed, and most admirably managed too, with their 14 and 15 assistants and their 1900 pupils, by two ladies at salaries exactly the same as those of the gentlemen occupying similar positions. And these ladies not only manage satisfactorily their own schools, but supervise at the same time branch schools of 535 and 452 pupils respectively.

It is undeniably true that it has always been taken for granted that a man can do any work in education till he proves by failure that he can not, while, on the other hand, it has been just as universally assumed that a woman can not do it till she demonstrates by success that she can; but, in face of facts

like these I have just stated, the ability of women to hold the highest places in our schools is being liberally conceded, and therefore, more and more, the work of education in America is coming into their hands, even as far as the part of it performed by committees and superintendents.

And not only is it coming into the hands of women, but, in the working-out of details, it is destined chiefly to be in the hands of very young women. Now from this spring two results which are noteworthy. The first is the frequent changes of teachers in American schools as compared with those of other countries. In some of its aspects, this may be considered an unfortunate fact; but since, from the general state of things, it is in America an inevitable one, it were wiser for us, in stead of deploring it, to consider how it shall guide our actions and what use we can make of it. It is useless to contend with destiny; but he who, while yielding to destiny, makes it subserve his own development, has solved the problem of life.

In view of this fact, then, the American normal school, more than any other, is called upon to found the teachings of its graduates on universal principles, so that, as each teacher shall carry these out in her daily work, this frequent change of teachers shall not affect the real life of the schools, but make only, perhaps, unimportant changes in the minutiae of execution. Especially to be avoided in the American normal school are text-books of the compendium style, which give science and art in so diluted a form that the flavor is hardly perceptible, but which, while they convey scarcely any nourishment, and covertly weaken the mental digestion, inspire the pupil with an exaggerated idea of his own acquisitions. The strongest thoughts of the strongest thinkers are the only mental exercise fit for those who are to learn to educate others. The work will be hard—it may seem to be unproductive; but one real insight into real truth is worth more than the almost passive reception of a thousand facts.

There is one phase of these charges to which I pause to call attention, this phenomenon of frequent changes in the schools being only the manifestation of the real fact that a large majority of the young women in our schools teach only for a few years, leaving the profession for the care of a household and family. This, though it seem at first view not directly to affect our subject, can not be passed over without notice, so powerful is it in its effects. For no young woman can successfully manage and control sixty or seventy children five hours a day for one single year, without developing an amount of directive power which the young women of no other country have a chance of acquiring. And without pausing to notice the fact that this talent, once acquired, is exercised afterwards in the wise management and control of American homes, by which the country as a whole is the gainer, the next generation can not fail to be influenced by it, and hence our schools will have better material to work upon and the work of the teacher can be better. We can not pronounce the fact that so large a number of our American wives and mothers serve an apprenticeship, temporary though it be, as executive officers in our school-rooms to be wholly a misfortune, even to the schools. But this is a side thought.

The second result to which I have referred is that our normal schools, especially in cities, will be mostly composed of young women, the young men being a comparatively unimportant element in determining the work of the school;

and in schools composed mostly or wholly of young women, there is always danger of a weak sentimentalism, of narrow and subjective views of all questions. But it should never be forgotten that the pupils of the American normal school are to *teach* boys as well as girls, and probably both together, for the advantages of coeducation are too great to allow us to suppose that it will not be adopted. Therefore, the greatest possible precaution is necessary in the American normal school to keep always a fresh and healthful current of outside life flowing through it, and to teach what human nature, in all its phases, really is. Women often make themselves liable to criticism in their business relations and in their charities, simply from a lack of knowledge of human nature. They are so ignorant of the real nature of those with whom they have to deal, or whom they try to help, that their efforts are only wasted. The American girl who is to be a teacher must be brought into mediate, if not immediate, contact with the life of the real world, and an American girl does not need to be shut up in conventual ignorance to preserve her purity of thought. She must learn how to manage boys by understanding them; to manage girls, her own heart will teach her. Teaching is a business, and she must be daily brought into contact with laws as impersonal and unrelenting as those of business, if she is to learn how to satisfy its demands. Too much stress can hardly be laid upon this point in our American normal schools, composed, as they are, of young women. The good intention must never there be accepted as a substitute for the good result. Each deed must be allowed fully to return to the doer without any hand's being interposed to prevent. Thus forced, for probably the first time, upon her own responsibility, able to shelter herself behind no one from the consequences of her own actions, the future teacher will be better able to appreciate, to deal with and discipline her boys from their own standpoint, this being a boy's outlook from the first.

Some further peculiarities of the American normal school arise from the influence of climate, of race, or rather of the races that form the nation, and of government.

First, as to the influences of climate: We are the children of the sun, and our climate, one of severe extremes, stings us into a restless activity which is the astonishment of Europeans. Our foreign-born citizen learns by experience that he can not with impunity consume as large an amount of stimulants here as he could use without danger at home, and he also learns, but more slowly, that we are forbidden to demand of children here the same number of hours' intellectual labor. The children with whom the graduates of our American normal school will have to deal are precocious, nervous, and active to a degree generally unknown in Europe. They demand more care and watchfulness in the line of order, and not so much spurring as judicious leading on the intellectual side; and we have to add to this fact of a greater tendency to disorder the fact that the American school is expected to present a degree of order unknown in European school-rooms. We are required, therefore, in the American normal school, not only by precept, but first and most of all by actual hourly example, to show what is meant by perfect quiet, order, punctuality, and regularity. Its pupils are not at all to be left to come and go, to speak or be silent as is natural to them, provided no serious disturbance ensues. The very innermost idea of education is the conquering of naturalness. It seeks, most of

all, that the mind—the rational will—shall gain a complete mastery over the body and reduce it to a state of unquestioning vassalage. From the moment the child is born his education begins in teaching him to subject the merely natural; and this idea, needing to be driven home daily and hourly into the consciousness of all teachers, is in special need of enforcement in America.

The influences of climate and of race naturally pass over into each other.

The over-activity and competition in business, produced not only by the climate but by the crowding of so many nationalities on our shores and their intermingling, makes life more *rapid* here than in Europe. More must be accomplished in a shorter time; there is no time to be wasted, and a large majority of our children are forced out of school at a very early age. As a result of these facts, the teacher of the American normal school has two points especially to bear in mind: first, he can never hold it of unimportance how any thing is done. The correct result should never be sufficient or praiseworthy unless it is attained by the best and quickest method. The manner in which work is executed (for example, in which statements are written, and the perfect order in books, maps, illustrative apparatus, wardrobes), as well as the sharp foresight indispensable to the utilizing of time, it must be his constant aim to create and to form into ineradicable habits in his pupils. And the order, the arrangement, must not be merely subjective, and hence arbitrary; it must accord with the business forms which the experience of years has slowly crystallized into shape.

Second, from the fact that so many children leave school so early, they must be taught how to use books, for the silent book, and not the speaking teacher, is, of necessity, to do the chief part of the education of the American people; and it is the graduates of our normal schools who must teach them how to do this. The inability to learn from books was often found in the late war, in men who would spend hours studying over manuals of tactics where the movements were as exactly described as was in the power of words to describe any thing, and then would come to their superior officer in despair, to learn how to do the simplest things; and it finds itself illustrated where we are not so much surprised to discover it, every day in our schools. Hence, more than elsewhere is *oral instruction* out of place in the American normal school. Its pupils must be guided and trained till they are able of themselves and by themselves to acquire from the printed page the results of science. They should be rendered, as far as possible, wholly independent of their teachers for the gaining of information, and as the timid swimmer is taught to support himself only by depriving him of external support, so, more in the American normal school than in any other, should the teacher continually, again and again, as it were, fling the pupil back upon his own efforts, and refer him to his book and to his own patient thinking and rethinking for his explanations.

We come now to the effects produced by the form of government under which we as Americans live. Its essence is individual freedom. Assuming that man is capable of self-government, it calls upon him to determine his own actions. This demand, the result of our entire freedom, so permeates our whole national life and hence our whole system of education, that, to relieve ourselves from the constant tension, we seek for relief in mechanism. We have to decide so many things for ourselves that we grow weary, and are therefore, more than any other nation, inclined to appeal to some arbitrary authority, some



fixed standard, for direction, and thus to fall into routine. Just as the brain, after mastering the arts of eating, of speaking and of walking, seems to fashion them into habits, and then to relieve itself for more important work by handing over these actions to the spinal cord for execution after having given the first impulse, so, whenever the vital force is called upon continuously for an unreasonable and hence exhausting amount of expenditure, it turns inventor, and fashions some mental mechanism which shall relieve it of part of its labor, so that it may spend itself with more power on the rest. Thus, those nations who, by the demands of their religion, are called upon to offer a never-ending series of prayers, seek rest in the invention of praying-machines. The actor is enabled to play the parts of HAMLET, OTHELLO, and RICHARD III, night after night, only by reducing as much of his work as he possibly can to a kind of mechanism. Otherwise, the demand on his nervous energy would be unendurable.

We, as Americans, shall always be inclined to seek relief from the constant demand upon our self-determination in a blind and passive acquiescence in something—it may be in public opinion, or fashion, customs, and usages. In our special profession, it may be in *long-established forms*, or, in *text-books*. What else do all our never-ending series of resolutions and platforms signify, but the feeling which says, "Do let us have done with this perpetual discussion, and stop for a while this thinking. Let us once for all make up our minds on certain points, crystallize our decisions into shape, and then stand by them for ever after." And though resolutions become the rapidly-vanishing milestones on our journey, and platforms are split up to be used as girders or braces for new and broader ones, yet the American nation will still occupy much of its time in fabricating them.

The teacher, it is true must follow the actor's example; but with as much thought as he uses in selecting the *portions* of his work which he will, as it were, run by machinery, must she, in her work, assign to *mechanism* its proper place. Machinery is very excellent when it is arranged and controlled by rational will; and only then.

The often-criticised *tendency* to mechanism in our American schools is inevitable, but it is not inevitable that we should yield to it. A difficulty becomes an impossibility only by the addition of want of acknowledgment or want of skill or want of *will*. But in the American normal school this tendency should be acknowledged, and all means possible brought to bear to create the skill and to strengthen the will which only can enable its graduates to avoid it.

One more point. Where, as in America, from the structure of society (which depends on the form of government), no one is prevented from attaining any position he may desire, by any *external* obstacle, there must necessarily spring up a boundless ambition and aspiration. The only obstacle in the way of any man is internal—that of his own incapacity; and of the existence of that it will require actual failure to convince him.

In America, more than elsewhere, we must expect to find multitudes attempting to do what is beyond their power, and the profession of education, in common with all other spheres, exhibits this fact. The American normal school, in order that its diploma shall mean any thing whatsoever, has therefore to distinguish between the chaff and the wheat, and then, decidedly and with authority, to separate the one from the other, retaining only the

wheat. Unless it does this steadily, without fear or favor, it will be of very little service, however large may be its numbers, because it will simply serve, in that case, to *exhibit* a natural weakness, in stead of helping to correct it.

I have made no attempt to-day to describe the ideal American normal school. I have simply endeavored to show that there are causes, both final and efficient, which tend to shape it into a special form, and tendencies in the very air we breathe, the people among whom we live, and the nature of the government that sustains it, which it must recognize and strive to control by special methods, if it would be worthy of the profession or of the country.

Department adjourned.

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## SECOND DAY.

WEDNESDAY—AUGUST 7th, 1872.

THE Normal Department met at 2½ o'clock—the President in the chair.

The discussion of the papers of Prof. GREENOUGH and Miss BRACKETT came first in order.

*Mr. R. G. Williams*, of Castleton, Vermont, Principal of the State Normal School. I know that the proper work of the normal school has been discussed in this Association before, but there are still some important questions to be met, and I hope it will continue to be discussed. I have a very strong conviction that the proper work of the normal school is not the teaching of subjects, but the teaching of methods. Whether the people are prepared for this, whether the normal schools are prepared for it, whether the teachers are prepared for it, I do not know. I doubt whether they are, either of them. I feel that this should be the position of the normal school, that its work is not the teaching of subjects. Subjects can be taught in the graded schools and academies throughout the country: the teaching of subjects is their business, and it has been all they have attempted to do, except in a few seminaries where they have what they call a normal class, to which a few hints about teaching are given, perhaps once a week, in a term of ten, twelve or fifteen weeks; and then that class graduates and goes out as the normal class of the seminary, and therefore qualified to teach; but they have learned only about three letters of the alphabet as to the methods of teaching, not the whole of it; certainly not much beyond three letters. I feel that it should be the work of this normal department to maintain that the business of the normal school, I would almost say, is not with subjects, but wholly with methods of teaching; for, in my opinion, the method of teaching is worth more than the subject of the teaching; not that the subject is not important, but for the teacher the method of that teacher's work effects more, tells more in the great object of teaching, than the subject of the teaching. The President presented the idea that normal scholars should be prepared to go alone, trained and taught to take the text-book and go alone.

Very well, if they have had the right teaching to bring them up to use the text-book; but the use of the text-book in the school-room and the teaching of the teacher, the training of the teacher how to use the text-book, are very different things. I found out in my experience of a great many years that the text-book is of very little account; it is the teacher behind, always and every where. It has been my fortune to teach in three different states, and I find the same thing every where. Any body that can read can hear a recitation, but not one in twenty that I have employed as teachers—having employed ten or twelve every year—not one in twenty can teach subjects as a teacher should before a class, without his book, without knowing what the questions were or the verbal answers in the book, to draw out the ideas of the scholar on any subject, or manfully to present it in his own words. I have found but one, sir, who could teach geography without the use of the text-book, who could interest a class and hold it together for the term. I have been obliged to change teachers three times in a year for want of a teacher who could teach geography properly. I have seen a teacher give a question and then look for the answer, and the scholar would call out, "Miss B—, the answer is on the next page." I think geography is one of the most-easily acquired and interesting subjects that can be, yet I say that not one teacher in a dozen can teach a class geography, interest the class, and hold that class together during the term. The business of the normal school is to train teachers how to teach; we should not be obliged to spend the time required for this in teaching subjects. Practically this difficulty meets us every where; in examining a class for admission to the normal school, even. Why, I do n't like to tell of some of the examination papers we have. Persons expect to be admitted to go through a course of training how to teach when they have not learned the elements of what they are to teach. I go for any movement that will tend to lift our normal schools entirely above subjects,—that no scholar shall be admitted until subjects are learned, and the whole time then, two or three years, may be spent in methods of teaching. I am in favor of a sort of objective teaching, teaching the objects, not so much qualities and names, but teaching about objects and requiring scholars, training them and showing them how, to find out the qualities by examination, teaching observation. I hope that some of these points will be discussed.

*Mr. George P. Beard*, of Warrensburg, Missouri. I wish to call attention to some of the remarks which have just been made. It seems to me that the gentleman's experience practically contradicts the theory which he lays down. He would have the normal school strictly a professional school, doing nothing, almost, with subject-matter. I admit the beauty of the theory, but I deny its practicability. It seems to me that the necessity which he presents of changing his teachers in geography three times in one year from the fact that they were confined to the text-book shows the necessity of teaching subject-matter in the normal school or some where else. If the teachers had the subject-matter at command, it seems to me that the manner of teaching without the text-book is a very simple thing. If they were the slaves of the text-book and confined to the text-book, it is evident that what they needed first was subject-matter; and if they were but in training for teaching, in a normal school, or professional

school, whatever name it may be called, the first thing of importance is to teach subject-matter. With that practically we have to teach method, from the fact that the candidates in our normal schools are not competent pecuniarily to take a two-years' course exclusively on subject-matter, and a two-years' course in method. It lengthens the time so that we can not practically utilize it. Then, again, I believe there is philosophy in this statement of the case, that geography is best learned by teaching geography. In other words, it is impractical, again, to separate subject-matter entirely from method, even though the candidate be prepared in subject-matter before entering the normal school. Subject-matter must be used in the normal course as a means to the end of learning. So that the idea of a strictly professional school, meaning method alone, I believe to be very generally, or comparatively generally, accepted among educators, not a practical theory. It seems to me that what we need and demand is such a combination of matter and method in normal instruction that the two may be all the time welded together, one supporting and helping the other. I believe it to be the only practical method.

It was mentioned yesterday, by Mr. GREENOUGH, I believe, that the proper form of recitation should be actual teaching. I regret that he is not here, for I should be glad to inquire how he would distinguish between the normal-school recitation and the ordinary recitation in the higher grade of schools, grammar and high schools. After his statement that the proper form of recitation in the normal school is actual teaching, I wish he would describe to me what he understands by the topical method of recitation proper for the higher grade of schools. But, as he is not here, I will simply raise the question, and state as my own opinion that he has the true theory, but he ought to accept this statement, that is, that the proper form of recitation in the normal school should be a topical recitation such as should present to the eye on the board a brief synopsis of the subject-matter embraced in the lesson in a logical arrangement, and demand that the pupil should stand before the class and tell what he knows in a logical and well-delivered statement, subject to criticism and correction from the rest of the class, making it mutual in that respect, so far as criticism and discussion are concerned. Now the pupil following that course of recitation, and delivering what he knows in the best form of expression, is not the teacher in the sense I understand teaching, and the practice of teaching in the normal schools. Still, the essayist started with this declaration, that the form of recitation should be actual teaching. I do not understand that the pupil is yet a teacher as he listens to the comments of his class, any more than he is in a topical recitation in a great many schools.

In the other paper the essayist said that our schools were going rapidly into the hands of the female portion of the community, and we were left to infer that in a few years there will be no masculine teachers left. I want to enter my protest against that. I think there is a specious sophistry in it which we ought to consider a little. I thought the essayist would lead us to believe that, in her opinion, all the schools would be actually taught by females exclusively, and that superintendents and school committees would be composed of females. I do n't think she intended that, but I think it was a very plain inference from what was said: the statement was made that the schools were rapidly falling into the hands of females, and the ratio of the teachers in the different states

was given as an indication of that statement, etc. I think that part of the essay is all comprehended, summed up, in this: the fact that in the past few years public sentiment has come to appreciate the labors of females, and to regard them as the naturally-ordained teachers of children, as the proper teachers of primary schools; and the other fact that the primary schools are largely in the majority. Hence it follows that the female teachers are in a majority, because they fill the positions of teachers in the primary schools; and the time probably is not far ahead when primary schools as a class, country schools, mixed schools, ungraded schools, will be practically exclusively in the hands of female teachers, and perhaps the superintendents and directors will be females, perhaps so. But I do not think it possible, practicable or wise that all of our schools of all grades should go into the hands of females. However much I may appreciate their services in their proper place, I do not think the interests of the higher grades of schools should be exclusively in the hands of females. It seems to me they will be exceptional cases where primary schools are in the hands of male teachers, and where high schools are in the hands of female teachers. As a rule, all high schools will be taught by males, and all schools of a lower grade by females, when we come to the final settlement of this subject, in my opinion. I take this occasion to say this, because the essayist would lead us to believe that we are coming very rapidly to the point, to the consummation suggested by the essayist, when the schools shall be under the exclusive administration of the ladies. With that exception, I found many things to admire in both papers. I certainly agreed with the essayists in the main, and with the last speaker on the subject.

*Mr. E. H. Cook*, of Westchester, Pennsylvania. The last gentleman who had the floor, if I understand him rightly, made the remark that the topical plan was the true plan for us to adopt in the normal schools, exclusively, as I understand the statement. I can not, sir, agree with him on that question. I agree with the topical plan so far as it goes, but there is in it a certain amount of superficiality that we do not need in normal schools. If we engage in this normal work on this topical plan, we know that the very pupils who make the finest recitation on the topical plan, if we come to question them closely and sharply on the very subjects on which they are prepared, have not grasped the great principles underlying the whole. It seems to me that the true object of the normal school is not entirely to train, as the gentleman who spoke previously advocated, and not entirely to educate, but it is a combination of the two. We must educate, and while we are educating we must train. It is not, in my judgment, so much to teach a particular method, the method that suits this individual or that individual; the method that I may get astride of, my hobby, or that some other normal teacher may get astride of, his hobby; as it is to teach the science of true education, to build a basis upon which we can each one build up methods for ourselves. We do not want to destroy the individuality of those we come in contact with. If we devote the whole time to teaching methods, talking about different forms of teaching, how this should be done and that should be done, it seems to me there is a tendency to make out of those who come under our instruction, the young and easily influenced, mere machines, and to destroy their individuality as teachers; to make out of them,

as it were, mere machines in educational work. The object is not so much thought, as it is to develop thought; and while we develop thought, we develop also the power of expressing that thought in proper language, and are also developing what we may call a knowledge of human nature. The difficulty is just there with our teachers; it is not because they do not know. Some of the professors in our colleges, who know, perhaps, more than three-quarters of us, are the poorest teachers that can be found in this country. Knowledge, Lord Bacon said, is power. Knowledge is power when a man can use that knowledge; if it is stored in his own head and he can not impart it, there is no power in it. What is wanted is not a particular kind of method, but it is a general plan upon which the mind of the child is developed, a general plan on which all human minds take in knowledge. There is a general plan, and when we get down, or up, rather, upon that platform, it seems to me we shall get the normal school on a true basis. But we have got to educate at the same time we are carrying on this work; we can not separate it entirely; we could if we had finely-educated men to commence with, but that is not the case: it certainly is not the case in Pennsylvania; I do not know but it is so in Massachusetts.

*Mr. Beard.* If any one believed that I would have the normal schools make machines of their pupils, he certainly misconstrued my words. I was speaking, in criticism of the statement made by the essayist, of the different forms of recitation. One is the topical form; I do not recommend it exclusively, but I believe it to be a characteristic one. If there is any form of recitation which will develop more individuality, and a more proper expression of thought, I would like to have the gentleman recommend it.

*Mr. C. H. Verrill,* of Pennsylvania. I hardly know just what line this discussion is proceeding in, and whether or not the gentleman who spoke first would desire to take students who have pursued a course in a seminary or academy, perhaps, where methods are not spoken of at all, or whether he would desire to take students who had pursued a short course of study in the normal school, and then a course of training in methods, or whether he takes it for granted that they need no special training in methods in the normal school, only so far as the example is set before them — which of these methods he desires to take I do not know. I believe that subject-matter and method should go hand in hand, at least after the elements of education are taught, after primary education. My own experience is this, that the individual who studies with constant reference to teaching, whether he is studying the subject-matter of reading or spelling, or studying VIRGIL, will learn more of the subject-matter, and will accomplish more, than if he studied these things without reference to teaching. When we have students together who grasp this idea, whether they are fitting for teachers or not, they are all the time studying with reference to teaching, much will be accomplished. As regards methods, I understand the gentleman to give great prominence to the topical method. I believe there is more chance of accuracy in a written method of recitation, requiring the normal scholars, each one of a class, to write out the lesson from beginning to end. I know it is work for the teacher; I know it requires a great deal of labor; I know it is one thing to express yourself upon paper and another to be able to rise and speak your thoughts; but, so far as accuracy is concerned, I believe

there is more to be attained in the written method than in any other. Undoubtedly the three methods to be combined in the normal work are the topical method, the method of catechising, and the written method. To be sure, you may call the written method the topical method, but not strictly speaking. I have seen some very curious examples of this. The gentlemen next to the last said we find ourselves deceived in pupils, that those who for two years have made good recitations are not thorough in their work. These mistakes, I believe, are not so liable to occur in the written method, and are not so liable to occur in the mode of recitation called catechising.

*Mr. Beard.* In regard to written recitation, this has been my experience in our normal school: We recite by oral recitation four days each week, and have on the fifth day of each week, Friday, a written review of the four previous days' work, and upon this written review the scholars receive their standing in scholarship. Thus the four days' work is bound together and put in a written form. The same subject-matter, the same topics are given; and every member of the class giving equal time to the same subjects, the logical development of the subject-matter is passed over in that given time. After the topical review, there is an oral recitation in class-work, ordinarily, and there is always an opportunity for a categorical recitation on the part of the teacher and pupil, and criticism on the part of all the members of the class, so that all the methods the gentleman recommends would be cared for in this administration of the school.

*Mr. C. F. R. Bellows*, of the Normal School, Michigan. It was not my pleasure to be present yesterday and listen to the papers which were read, but I have been exceedingly interested in the remarks which have been made this afternoon, for the reason that we find so much occasion for clear and comprehensive views with respect to normal work. This normal problem is still unsolved, probably. The solution seems to take two quite clearly defined lines; some claiming that the work of the normal school is only to teach methods, others that the teaching of subject-matter and methods should be combined. I am inclined to the latter view. I think that we can not divorce matter and method in the normal-school work. My views have been materially modified by my experience as a normal teacher. Five years ago I was as radical as any one could be with respect to the characteristic work of the normal school. I thought it should be confined exclusively to method; but when I came to make the trial, I could do nothing without the matter. The matter seems to stand in the relation of apparatus, a means to an end: it constitutes the tool with which we work; and I have come to the conclusion that we can do nothing without a wise union of the two. I have been endeavoring, in the mathematical department of the Michigan Normal School, to realize this treatment of method. As we have our normal school arranged, we have a training course which commences early in our normal-school work: it is, in reality, the first year's work, although it is set down for the second; let us consider it there. Our first year's work is a preparatory work; it embraces the study of arithmetic, reading, spelling, geography, and grammar—a review of these subjects for the purpose of determining the preparation of our students to enter the normal course proper. Students come from all the schools of the state, and in many of them have been

indifferently taught, and the first year in the normal school is a sort of running examination of these students. They are taught empirically, if I may use the expression; they are taught how to teach without any reference to the fundamental principles of method. They are shown a good way of teaching these common branches. The second year they go before our training teacher, the teacher having the charge of the school of observation and practice, and he delivers a lecture to them daily upon the fundamental principles of the methods of teaching; develops psychology, shows the natural laws in accordance with which the mind is developed; shows the pedagogical principles of methods, and refers to the various departments of science for their illustration. The students go from these lectures to the teachers of different departments of science in the schools, and that course is sufficiently full to prepare the students for admission to the State University. A four years' course is given by the teachers of the different departments of science in the normal school; and the work in my own department has been the illustration of the application of these fundamental principles of methods to the teaching of subject-matter, for the purpose of showing how those principles are developed in the minds of these pupils, and are applied in teaching the various topics. The gentleman has referred to the mode of recitation. It has been my custom to cultivate the habit in those of my pupils who recite to me, when reciting, to take the place of the teacher, and the person who is called on takes his or her place as the real teacher and presents the subject, giving it in full or in parts, as may be required, and then the class criticise, ask questions, and draw out the application of principles. I sit on one side and become, as it were, a member of the committee on criticism, the class forming a committee of the whole. If the teacher has violated any principle of method, it is referred to, and in that way I have aimed to do all the work of my department, even to the teaching of the higher branches of mathematics; constantly subordinating the matter to the method; keeping the method first and foremost; letting that be the whole face and front in reality of our work, so that any one going into our recitation would not need to be told that our school was a normal school, for it would pervade the very atmosphere of the school-room. It seems to me that teaching subject-matter is using a means to an end, as an apparatus. I can not conceive, for the life of me, how I could teach the methods of teaching arithmetic without the arithmetic. I can not conceive how the method of teaching any branch of study can be taught without the study itself. I do not believe that methods of teaching are confined merely to the primary branch, object-lesson work: I believe that those principles of methods that were developed in the primary grades run clear up through all branches of science; and those higher branches of science need to be taught with reference to those modified primary principles, just as we need to begin to teach any one in accordance with true education. In this way I believe we are to realize the higher normal-school work. I do not think it is feasible, as the speaker who preceded me remarked, to have a higher grade of normal school or a lower grade of normal school than we have. I think that the normal school wants to be lengthened out both ways, drawn up higher, and drawn down lower; it seems to me that they should embrace the whole work of methods of teaching, and should carry forward the principles of



education to their application in the higher departments of study in the normal school.

The discussion closed at this point, and W. T. COPELAND, of Mass., was chosen a member of the "Committee on Publication" from the Normal Department.

The following persons were named by the President as "Committee on Nomination of Officers for the Normal Department," for the year ensuing, viz., S. H. WHITE, of Ill.; C. F. R. BELLWS, of Michigan; G. T. FLETCHER, of Maine; E. C. HEWETT, of Ill.; and Miss J. H. STICKNEY, of Mass.

The following paper was read by Hon. T. W. HARVEY, State School Commissioner of Ohio.

#### PROFESSIONAL INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The efficiency of any school system is acknowledged to be largely dependent upon the provision made in it for a supply of competent, trained teachers. The subject has long been discussed, but we have not yet arrived at conclusions, satisfactory to every one, as to the character of all the agencies we should employ to secure that supply. We have theorized, we have accumulated facts and data; but the normal-instruction problem has not been solved.

To the theorist, in the seclusion of his study, this problem seems easy of solution. He reasons thus: A system of public schools, fostered and sustained by state patronage, should be a complete, consistent whole. Normal schools are essential to completeness and efficiency in such a system. Therefore, they should be established and sustained by the state, and teachers trained in them to whom the education of its youth should be intrusted.

We admit the force of this reasoning. The conclusion seems to be logically derivable from the premises. Certain facts, however, whose existence and importance should neither be denied nor ignored, may, on examination, force us to modify it somewhat, or at least, by a few provisos and exceptions, to guard ourselves against its train of inferences.

Nearly one-third of our teachers leave the profession each year to engage in other employments. Of the many thousands required to supply our schools, a few hundreds only intend to become professional teachers. The expediency of establishing special training schools of high grade, with complete, exhaustive courses of study, for the large non-professional class may be questioned. It will be difficult to convince tax-payers and finance committees that any scheme for the thorough professional training of even one-fourth of this class is practicable or advisable. It will be equally difficult to demonstrate to them that the value of the product is greater than the cost of the production. They demand less expensive agencies than these, and it is our duty to look around us to see, whether they can not be employed with excellent result.

The class of professional teachers, in our country, will long be comparatively small. A self-sacrificing, inadequately-paid teacher can not look forward to the calm and ease of a pensioned old age as the reward for a lifetime devoted to the exacting and often thankless duties of his profession. The substantial prizes

to be won are few. Teaching, therefore, in the near future as in the past, will, in most cases, be a temporary calling, engaged in by young men while "getting under way," by young ladies unable to find some other more attractive or more remunerative employment, and will be abandoned without regret at the first favorable opportunity. We may wish this were otherwise—we may deplore this constant thinning of our ranks; but the stern fact exists, nevertheless, and due importance should be attached to it in our theorizing upon normal instruction.

Many of these non-professional teachers are graduates of high schools, academies, seminaries, and colleges—most of them, however, undergraduates of these institutions, or such as have enjoyed no other educational advantages than those furnished by the country district school. Their scholastic attainments may be sufficient to enable them to pass any reasonable examination test; but very few of them, without some special training, will comprehend, during their brief pedagogical career, the laws of physical and intellectual growth, and the philosophy which underlies all true methods of study and instruction. What agencies are best calculated to fit and prepare the largest number of these, in the best manner possible, all circumstances considered, for their work?

In answering this question, we should not forget that our public and private schools are furnishing, or can furnish, all the instruction requisite or needful in the common as well as in the higher branches of study. If some of them are justly chargeable with a lack of thoroughness, if they are managed by those who are some times guilty of the heinous crime of using wrong methods, their pupils can be tested by searching, rigid examinations in the *what* of instruction before being received as pupils in professional training schools—in the *how* of instruction before being received as members of the teachers' fraternity. It is the duty of these schools to furnish all the academic instruction needful: it is our right to demand that it be thorough; but is it wise to recommend the establishment of special schools to duplicate their work, or to supply any real or fancied deficiency in it?

Private enterprise and state munificence have done much towards providing facilities for obtaining a certain amount of this desirable special training. So-called "normal schools" have been established by individuals and corporations for educational purposes in almost every state. With a single exception, these private institutions are in reality first or second class academies. As a general rule, pupils attend them to study the branches they expect to teach. Preparation for an examination in these branches absorbs most of their time and attention. Their anxiety is to get into a school-room, not to learn how to conduct themselves when there.

Hence, in these schools, instruction in methods is made subordinate to the acquisition of scholastic attainments. Those having charge of them are some times men of liberal culture, and know how to teach. The efforts of such to supply an acknowledged educational want should be encouraged, even though their instruction may be limited, and, in a degree, superficial. Others are men of a different character. They are the Ishmaelites of the profession. The best that can be said of them is, that we may be thankful their schools are no worse than they are. We may congratulate ourselves that the common sense of the

pupil is some times able to neutralize the baleful influence of a teacher's charlatany.

The single exception referred to is an experiment as yet. Firmly and persistently, its managers refuse to admit any within its walls as pupils who can not pass the ordeal of an examination in the common branches of an English education. Their time is not spent in conducting review recitations, or in teaching what can be as well taught elsewhere, but in making their pupils intelligent in matters immediately or remotely connected with all kinds of school work, and in teaching them how to base their methods of instruction upon philosophical certainties. If the graduates of this school fail to succeed, it will be because a wrong-headed public opinion will force them into the ruts made by others, or because they will find that stemming the current of whim and prejudice is more difficult than floating lazily along with it.

Two kinds of professional training-schools are sustained by states and municipal corporations:—city normal schools, designed to supply city public schools with teachers; and state normal schools, whose nominal purpose, at least, is to train those who are to teach country district schools, and the schools in the smaller towns and villages. It would be unwarrantable assurance on our part to assume to dictate a curriculum of studies for institutions conducted as private enterprises. Public sentiment alone must determine whether they are or are not worthy of patronage. They must stand or fall on their own merits. With state institutions the case is far different. Their management is a proper subject for kindly, generous criticism. What shall be the character of the instruction given in them? Shall it be purely professional, or partly professional and partly academic?

Except as incidental in the presentation and elucidation of methods, there can be no necessity in city normal schools for direct academic instruction. Those who avail themselves of their advantages are graduates of schools of high grade. They should be familiar with the branches of study they have pursued. If they are not, the training school is no place for them. A review, even, of branches that should have been thoroughly mastered in grammar or high school would seem to be a mere waste of time and effort. Knowing the educational wants and needs of the cities whose future teachers they are training, the managers of these normal schools should devote themselves exclusively to professional instruction. It would seem that no valid reason can be urged why they should do otherwise.

It is not my purpose to define the exact character of this instruction, or to prescribe limits to its extent. I claim only that it shall be purely professional. If there are branches, however, which a teacher should pursue and others need not, or if certain branches should receive more attention from teachers than from the general student, such instruction in these branches as the necessities of the case may demand will be of a professional character, because given in a professional spirit, and with a professional end in view.

These city normal schools need not be cast in the same mould. The special wants of no two communities are precisely alike. The presiding genius of each city school system should have ideas of his own, should possess some originality. It is right, as it is inevitable, that the methods he approves should be recommended for adoption, and that the results he aims to secure should not be

considered as of trivial importance. Differing so widely, as the most thoughtful educators do, in views concerning the details of school management, and in the application as well as in regard to the utility of methods, it is not possible, even were it desirable, that uniformity should exist. Teachers will not all be employed in the cities where they receive their professional training. Wherever they go, however, their methods will be compared with those used by others; the influence of their training upon culture, conduct and character will be compared with the influence of other and different training. The result will be an exodus of hobby-riders from the profession, and the substitution of rational, philosophical processes for theoretical makeshifts and experiments.

These city normal schools are established to supply the constant demand for competent teachers in all grades of our city public schools. It is expected that ere long they will supply this demand. If they do not, the sanguine hopes of their founders will not be realized, and most of them will be discontinued as costly, unsatisfactory experiments. The case is far different with state normal schools. As has been intimated, comparatively few non-professional teachers will voluntarily attend them. The salaries they receive, the length of time they intend to devote to teaching, will not warrant the expenditure of time and money required to complete a thorough course of professional instruction. Why, then, advocate their establishment? Because they are needed as training institutions for those ambitious and presevering enough to aim at the highest excellence in the profession of their choice, and because they are indispensable to the existence of other agencies by which the non-professional class may be trained more or less thoroughly for their temporary calling.

There are those in every community to whom teaching is a delight. To them the arduous duties of the school-room are neither irksome nor repulsive. They commence their career as teachers in the district school; but they look beyond it to fields of labor in village, town, or city, where they hope to reap a rich harvest of honor and reward. They know that success depends upon training—the winning of the race upon the preparation made before starting for the goal. With due deference to the opinion of those earnest men who differ from me in opinion, I must express my conviction that the state normal school should be conducted with special reference to the wants and needs of this class, and that one of its aims should be to increase its numbers. Its undergraduates should acquire in high school, academy, or college, all necessary attainments in general scholarship. Its curriculum should include special studies, mainly, many of them useful, perhaps, to the parent and the citizen, but all of them essential to a knowledge of the science of pedagogics. Academic attainments should be supplemented by adding to them a more extended knowledge of intellectual processes than the general student usually acquires, by showing how methods can be made to harmonize with these processes, thus pointing out the way by which all branches of study may be most successfully pursued and made the means of individual development and culture.

There should be two courses of study in this institution—an elementary and an advanced course. The elementary course should provide for instruction in the best methods of teaching the common branches of an English education, and in the philosophy upon which these methods are founded; for practice in the use of methods; for instruction in the details of school classification and

management, in educational history and legislation, in morals and manners, and in the duties and responsibilities of teachers, patrons and school officers. The advanced course should be thorough and complete. Those who finish it should be familiar with the development and practical workings of educational systems wherever established; should be able to criticise text-books intelligently, and to teach others how to supply their deficiencies; should be acquainted with school architecture, that under their direction school-houses may be erected, convenient in arrangement and economical in construction—in brief, should be thoroughly prepared to perform all the duties required of a first-class teacher or superintendent.

The graduates from this institution will be employed as teachers in the better class of town, village and country schools. Many of them will organize and teach normal classes, in term time or vacation, and repeat to others the lessons they have learned at their *alma mater*. Their work and its results will illustrate the use of method in instruction and demonstrate its value. Large numbers of non-professional teachers will be their pupils, will become imbued with the spirit of those to whom their management is intrusted, and use in school work such methods as they recommend. In this way, both directly and indirectly, the normal school will exert a wide and a healthy influence. If its managers be earnest, intelligent, enthusiastic educators, not impracticable theorizers, they will command and receive the respect and confidence of the profession. It will be a purely professional school, not an academy or college with a normal department attached. In due time, it will become the acknowledged head of each state school system, controlling, stimulating and directing all educational effort.

It may be objected to this scheme, that the special, restricted course of study recommended will not be pursued, voluntarily, by a large number of pupils; that it leaves to chance or whim the professional training of more than nine-tenths of our teachers; and that no one not a graduate from a normal school should be permitted to teach. It may be that but few will at first avail themselves of its advantages. As its merits become known, however, and its graduates achieve success as teachers, we may confidently trust that this number will increase rapidly. Such, at least, has been the case with the best special schools of other professions. So far as the normal school itself is concerned, the second objection has some force; but it should be remembered that the state is not restricted to the employment of a single agency in providing professional instruction for its teachers. Boards of institute managers may be appointed, whose duty it shall be to organize and provide for the conduct of normal institutes in different sections of each state, continuing them in session from six to ten weeks each year. County institutes may be made more efficient than they now are by increasing the length of their sessions, intrusting their management to experienced educators, and systematizing the work done in them. These agencies, when thoroughly organized, will place the means for professional instruction within the reach of every teacher in the land. It is not claimed that they will drive every form of inefficiency and incompetency out of all our school-rooms. It is admitted that their work will be limited, and, perhaps, somewhat superficial—necessarily so. They are, however, comparatively inexpensive. In the judgment of many thoughtful friends of our public-school system, they

will do more real good to the non-professional class of teachers than any other agencies we can recommend to legislators with even the faintest hopes that they will receive a moment's serious consideration.

Educational systems are growths, not creations. They are exponents of the social and political state, the moral, religious and intellectual condition of nations and communities. It may be possible in America, at some future day, for the state to compel its teachers to pursue and complete a course of study in a normal school, even though the time they intend to devote to teaching may be short. Ere the dawn of that day we must outgrow or lay aside many of our national characteristics. The genius of our institutions, the temper of our people, considerations of policy and expediency, are all at present opposed to the enforcement of laws whose object is to drive men into or out of any profession. Being an American by birth and education, loving my country, its people, and its institutions, I can not help hoping that the ease with which we shift from one employment to another—the teacher of to-day becoming the farmer, mechanic, merchant, engineer, physician or divine of to-morrow—will not be the first national peculiarity to disappear in the “good time coming.”

#### DISCUSSION.

*Mr. J. H. Hoose*, Principal of the State Normal School at Cortland, New York. I may say, also, in connection with this whole question, as the papers read before have been laid over for discussion, some things which seem to me fundamental. In the first place, is n't it true that in our bodies, as we are discussing methods, we are apt to go off, not at loggerheads, yet to cross each other's tracks? These things being so, it stands us in hand to inquire why they are so. Sitting here to-day and listening to these able remarks of the gentlemen who preceded me in this discussion, one could not help but inquire Why is it that, with so much experience, there should be such a difference in what are called methods? To come to the point, perhaps, a little more directly, let us inquire a moment in regard to this matter. As near as I can see, the points of the discussion run to about this: one class of teachers hold that the pupils are taught how to teach by being taught correctly, and another class holds that that is not sufficient, that there must be something else added. Where, then, is that point where the divergence commences? There certainly is a broad difference here. In the first place, what is necessary in order that a student may learn how to teach? By being taught properly? That belongs to a fundamental theory of learning which we do not recognize. There are two general ways of getting information, and these two general ways may be summed up in this: take one branch of study and its principles are all gisted, they have been gisted by the accumulated thought of years gone by. These gisted thoughts are axioms, or received principles, and the pupils of the day take these axioms or principles, and accept them as facts, and apply them to this, that or the other individual case. Prominent among these studies, perhaps the most prominent, is pure mathematics: axioms are accepted, and they are the fundamental things. Now, what kind of learning is this? Using the term of logicians—but here, unfortunately, logicians are at loggerheads,—we will call it the deductive way, taking that which is general and applying it to that which is particular. There is a certain class of intellects or minds which seem to be so

constituted that this is about the only way in which they can get exact information, but it is exact information second hand. There is another way of getting information about which we talk a great deal, which is to see facts, to see things, to see the manner in which things come to pass, and study the functions, and in studying the individual facts get at the single principle which underlies the whole. In other words, by the first way, the deductive, the person starts with a single principle and applies it to a thousand, more or less, individual facts; and in the other case, the person takes the individual facts and unifies them, sees what principle runs through the whole. Let me use an illustration. Suppose we go down to one of these streams of water and I find here a fish and there a fish; I find a lot of these fishes, and I look at them. They seem to be the same within certain limits, and I wish to see this uniformity. I can find it out only by the examination of facts; so I take a long line and run it through the centre of each one of the school of fish, which fastens them all together, and then I have got the whole. There may be a thousand fish, and I begin by looking at each individual, and getting the central thought. Here, then, are clearly two ways of learning; one is taking the general principle and applying it, and the other is taking the individuals and finding the central principle which is general. Let us see how that applies to our work. I am a pupil, and I am in a normal class. The teacher accepts the theory and acts upon the theory that I, the pupil, have all the opportunities of learning by seeing him teach. What is required of me? what is the task for my intellect? Clearly, that task is to take these facts and see the best I can what is the central thought underlying. That is the way of applying these things. That leads me to say that, as between these two methods of study, the second one I spoke of—let me call it the inductive method, logicians differ as to the term—requires a great deal more grasp of mind than the other. I suppose I shall get a good many after me here for saying this, but I have no doubt about it. I believe I am prepared to stand here and honestly express myself, that, as between the two organizations of mind, the one which learns—I was going to say only learns—by accepting generals and being able to apply them to particulars is a lower type of mind than that which takes facts and gets the central thought. I believe this to be true. When I find a pupil who can not take the particulars and go to the general, I never feel certain of his becoming a strong teacher; for to teach, above all things else, is to deal with individual facts, hundreds of them every day; and that man or that woman who can see what the central thought running through them all is has the largest grasp of mind. Why is it that some people understand human nature more than others? Because they have a more inductive mind, and see what these things mean. How many of us, in our experience, found that when we began teaching it bothered us a good deal, and we did not know what it meant, but as we got older all the trouble ceased, because we knew what occasioned it. How did we learn this? By a process of inductive reasoning, that is, observation; and one that does not learn in that way very well does not make much of a teacher, or does not bid fair to. One of the fundamental principles in selecting a teacher is, What is the type of mind of the one we would take—deductive, or inductive? Here is a deductive teacher, and what does the pupil have to deal with? I was about to say that, if I could have it just as I would like to, I would throw out all deductive means,

or I would put them with a certain class of students who could handle them easily and with safety.

Then there is another difficulty. Mr. Chairman, as I have begun so plainly, permit me to say another thing. A fundamental difficulty in discussing these questions, without doubt, is, we are all afraid of ourselves and each other. I think so. How many of us, let me ask, would be willing to-day to accept as a body what is called the method of any one we might name? Theoretically, we all would; practically, nobody. Why? Because we are afraid it would not be just right; afraid that it would not apply to our particular locality. It has appeared in the discussion here that localities can not be met by something general. Let us look at that a moment. The Constitution of the United States of America covers every locality in the United States, and nobody questions it. The Constitution of Massachusetts covers every foot of ground in Massachusetts; and it is so with every other state constitution. But when we come to apply this to teaching, we have n't any thing general enough, we are dealing with the mind. But does not the law deal with the mind? The making of laws is for the benefit of the people to be governed; the teaching of principles is for the benefit of those to be taught. Both have the same ends; yet, when we come to law we can all agree; but when we come to teaching nobody can agree with himself two years in succession, because the mind is progressive. Did you ever hear a minister complain because he had to baptize by immersion, or by sprinkling? Those are the professional and accepted modes. Why can not we, I submit, with all the candor in the world, adopt some general principles? I feel deeply on this matter, and if there is any thing I would like to see accomplished, it is that we come to be like other professions, with our established and acknowledged principles which we could all agree upon. But we can never agree upon things without making a general concession some where. You do it every where else, in church-relations, and in law. Who claims that the law does not keep up with the people? Do we as a nation grow more rapidly, or do we grow more slowly, because we are united? May I be pardoned for introducing another thought right here. Politics this fall—I think I can say it without harming any one's feelings—politics are exceedingly mixed; there is no doubt about it; but it is undoubtedly the duty of every person to vote, even though he vote for a person he really would not like to. And who feels in casting that vote as we shall do at the next election, even though it is not for just the one you like, who feels that he is kept from the enjoyment of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness? Every body feels it; but we must make concessions for the general good, and in voting as we shall there is not an individual voter who will feel that the United States is going to be destroyed; nobody feels that the United States is in any very serious danger, when we look soberly at it. I submit, Mr. Chairman, on the common sense of the thing, why should we as teachers stand up here and take things so curiously—I say that with great respect—so curiously, that we can not agree on any thing, but every man stands up by himself? That is all right enough. The point has been raised here whether a man would lose his individuality. Did you ever hear a lawyer who was obliged to accept a certain mode of practice, certain rules, and certain maxims, say he was going to lose his individuality? Did you ever hear a minister, because was obliged to preach Methodism, Presbyte-



rianism, or Unitarianism, say he was going to lose his individuality? Who ever heard of any such thing? Yet, when we come to teaching, they say "I will lose my individuality unless I teach just so, or so, or so." I feel exceedingly earnest on this thing. I think if we as teachers would consent to certain things, and make general concessions for the general good, and unite our purposes just as they do in state affairs and church affairs, we should advance the work of education much more rapidly. But each man stands by himself, experiments for himself, and if he succeeds, succeeds by himself. There is another point. When a lawyer fails in his case, who takes the blame? If he carries it on according to the established code and rules, the profession help share it, and he gets employment again. But suppose a person fails in teaching: it is his own lookout. Why? Because professionally we are not united; each man stands by himself, and has got to take his own risk. Therefore, if we were united more, we should be a stronger body than we are.

In reference to ways, let me point out another thought on this matter. It seems to me we make a sorry mistake in discussing method, as we talk about methods. There is a philosophy, and an application of that philosophy to individual cases, and do we not make a mistake in talking about a difference in methods, when we mean the difference of applying the method? The philosophy or the method is the same. That thing we are not apt to keep clearly before us. For instance, let me illustrate it. Ideas before words: suppose that is accepted; let that be one thing. If we could feel that this body, this association, would accept even that, I should think we had done so much towards the establishment of a profession. I do n't know whether we would all agree to that method; but for a moment let us accept it, ideas before words. Now, how shall we give that? One teacher says he does it in such a way; another, such a way, and another, such a way. Suppose there are ten ways of doing it, these ten teachers will get up and each one will feel that the others are not doing it right, because the application of the principle is not just as he would do it; when the fact is, the whole central thought is just the same, leaving it to the individuality of every person how to do it, and that the normal school need not bother itself with. It really seems to me that we might strengthen ourselves in this matter by adopting some things, and leaving it for the individual teacher to keep his individuality in applying the method or philosophy which we can all adopt. It is immaterial whether you draw up a liquid with a metallic pump, or a glass pump, or a rubber pump, or without any pump at all; what is the difference, so that it is done? The underlying principle is the same. It does seem to me, Mr. Chairman, that we could talk to better purpose as a national association.

I am taking too much time. Pardon me for referring to one point in the paper read by Miss BRACKETT yesterday; that because there are frequent changes of teachers in professional schools, therefore the principles on which the methods are founded should be uniform. There is a fundamental thing on which to start. Now, then, are there any universal principles? It does seem as though, in this day of our Lord, with the thought given to the subject, we, a body of teachers representing the normal interests of the United States, could accept some psychological principles, subject to modification, or could accept them and regard them as fundamental, and each year, as we come together, modify them

somewhat. Let us have something that will be central, if we can not have any thing that will be universal.

In reference to normal schools, I have this to say, that seven of the eight normal schools in New York are trying to solve the problem by uniting in their efforts and plans. We have three courses of study: an elementary course of two years, an advanced English course of three years, and what we call the classical course of four years; and pupils graduate from either of those courses with corresponding abilities.

With reference to the point made in the paper this afternoon, let me say that I heartily indorse the sentiment that the normal school should be a professional school, if we only had some settled professional elements from which to work. I do not mean to say that I do not recognize that there are, throughout the whole United States, certain elements and principles, but they are all floating about loosely, if you please. There are enough of them—I am casting no reflections on the learned gentlemen engaged in this work—there is enough of thought, enough of maxims, and axioms, and all those things, but they are not got together any where. I find three or four in New York, in Boston four or five, and in Cincinnati and Chicago, and in Portland there are three or four there; and so you find them scattered all over the country: would it not be better if these were in some way centralized? It seems to me that that is the thing to do. I appreciate also, fully, these general discussions; they stir us up and are of great value.

*Question.* Why should this difference of work in different schools be an objection to professional training? why not let each school do its own work, provided it is a good work, and do it in its own way?

*Mr. Hoose.* I would say "Yes," from the stand-point of the paper, emphatically "Yes!" But I submit, if the gentlemen will allow me, whether or not we could not improve the efficiency of each school by having some central principles, axioms or what-not, which we all could hold as being general throughout the United States, and let, if you please, the mechanical appliance of those principles be left to each school. I would not have any two individuals apply them necessarily in the same way; in that I would leave the greatest liberty. But the principle upon which the action is founded, if it is true, and if it is as broad as the human mind, why should it not be accepted as such? I see great difficulties in the way. We take up a work on psychology, we read it, and are inspired, and I suppose each one of us, when we get through, feels that he could write a new and original treatise on psychology, which is all well enough; but if there were some central accepted principles, would we not work to better advantage because we would be united? I think I appreciate very fully the advantage of general discussions, and of general independence; yet I can not see but that each one us, though the Declaration of Independence declares that we have the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, according to our own desires, surrenders some of those inalienable rights, if necessary, for the general good, and we advance it by such means. In theology it is the same, and in law: then why not pursue the same course in our association?

*Question.* You say you have seven schools in New York. I should like to know whether you have a uniform course of training in those schools.

*Mr. Hoose.* We are endeavoring to unify our work.

*Question.* Have you ever met together and tried to make a uniform course?

*Mr. Hoose.* It is our custom to meet together. Since 1868 we have met together semi-annually, and have discussed principles and details; and while each school is left free, so far as individual idiosyncrasy or eccentricity is concerned, I think there are certain fundamental principles which we recognize.

*Question.* Do you have a uniform system of training in your schools?

*Mr. Hoose.* Yes, sir; no, sir. A good deal of yes, and considerable no.

*Question.* What is the reason you have not; why have n't you succeeded with the seven or eight you have there in getting a uniform system of training?

*Mr. Hoose.* We have the greatest faith in each other in the world; yet, as I said, we have not got thoroughly acquainted, and when we are going through the woods we want to do our own whittling. I think it would be better for us to make more and more concessions. I do not mean by giving up individuality. Why should the teacher claim he was losing individuality any more than the minister or lawyer? That is the point I make.

*Miss Brackett.* Since the gentleman has done me the honor to quote something I said yesterday, I want to say that he has not quoted it exactly as I said it. He meant the same thing I meant, but it is liable to misrepresentation in the form he puts it. I will also say, if he will permit me, that it seems to me the first part of the gentleman's speech contradicts the last part. He begins by telling us of two qualities of mind, the deductive and inductive, and adds that in teaching the normal school he would put the deductive mind down in the third class of his pupils. Then he closes by beseeching us to find some central principle to apply to all cases; that is begging us to be teachers. If that is his point, I do not see why deductive pupils should be talked so much about. I believe that what we need in the work of teaching in America is uniform principles, to be applied, I suppose, by the process of deduction; and the inevitable changes which take place in the teachers render this the more necessary. It seems to me that we have not in America any native-born works—and I say that with all respect to the text-books which are used with great satisfaction by many—we have no books on education which go down into the real depths, the real grounds of teaching, at all equal to those we find in German literature. It seems to me we are all teaching empirically or inductively. We try experiments and come together in the association, and talk about those experiments, tell what we have done, and we try out of that to get something general. I do not believe that is the way to do. I believe that we have got to go down into psychology, as the gentleman calls it, more than we have done; and I believe we can do that best of all by studying the works of those German teachers who have made this a study in a sense that we in America do not know anything about. If we take up those works on education and study them, we all of us know that we will find there what we have been seeking for for years. We find that we have been ignorantly seeking those very things that might have been practiced knowingly, if we had examined the work before. I come from a city where the German influence is very strong, where they try every

now and then to convert the American schools into German schools, where they seem to think that if a thing is not done as it is in Germany, it is not done at all. I do not believe in that; but I do believe that in the German literature, in the writings of those Germans who have devoted their lives to the study of education as a deductive science, we shall find the principles which the gentleman from Cortland is so anxious to find, principles on which we can agree, and which applying, we shall do our work much better than we have ever done it before. But we shall have to have deductive minds on the subject.

*Mr. Hoose.* I rise to explain that seeming inconsistency. Starting out with a preference for induction, what I last contemplated was that the experience of this body, the vast experience here represented, shall be centralized, which process is an inductive process, in stead of a deductive.

*The President.* We have had a very interesting and very important discussion of the points that were raised in the papers that have been read. There are persons here who have thought a great deal, and have had a great deal of experience in these matters, and who could enlighten us on many points. There has been, as has been remarked, considerable difference of opinion manifested here, and this difference has arisen in many cases upon minor details of application, when perhaps there is no difference on the main question. I took the liberty, in opening the business of this department, to speak of dealing with general principles in a national association, and of avoiding a style of discussion that might be proper in a county, or even in a state association some times. In the few minutes that are left, allow me to indulge the hope that speakers will avoid questions of mere detail, and that we may have a thorough discussion, which has been so interestingly opened, on the topics presented in the paper, professional training in the normal school, and the normal institute, which was mentioned in the paper, and which will be further mentioned in a paper that is yet to be presented.

*Mr. Beard.* The normal institute was very well touched upon by Mr. PHELPS this morning. I believe it is an instrument not used to the extent of its adaptability. I think attention is too much given, just now, in many of the states, to the establishment and endowment of expensive state normal schools; that is, comparatively. I believe that we should give attention and emphasis to the importance of the normal institute, to giving a short course of normal-school instruction. I believe it to be practicable, more particularly from a financial point of view. The question in many states, in Missouri, and some of those states where we can not command as great financial means as we would like, the question is how to bring normal instruction in contact with the greatest number of actual teachers. The question is a very serious and a very important one. We can not do it through the state by the normal schools, however efficient and well endowed they are; we can not gather the teachers in them in very large numbers. We have in the State of Missouri, for instance, seven or eight thousand teachers engaged in actual school work every year. We have in the state normal schools not over five hundred, perhaps not four hundred, in actual attendance, and we have not graduated twenty-five from the two years' course annually up to the present time. Now these normal graduates can not

possibly reach, even in the institutes, all those who need institute instruction, but they can to some extent. Their efforts and their preparation for the work can be used in the institute upon the great mass of teachers, who can come together and spend from one week to four or five weeks in receiving instruction in normal-institute work. They can not receive thorough normal instruction, but it will give some of them, who have started with great zeal in the work, a clue to the philosophy of teaching, and a hint at the principles which have been spoken of here, and their application, that will do the great mass of the school-teachers some practical good. So I think the great question is how to make the normal institute more efficient, and carry normal instruction to the greatest number of primary teachers, persons who are actually engaged in teaching, but who can not spend the time or bear the expense of attending the state normal school. I submit that the problem in Missouri, and elsewhere, is how to secure the maximum normal instruction at the minimum of expense.

*Mr. Blake*, of North Carolina. I wish that gentleman, or some other gentleman, would give us some idea how to conduct those institutes. It is a problem that interests me more than any other in educational matters. How long should the institute be held? They told us this morning that the institute was held generally from two to six weeks, if I remember right. I wish some one would tell us what is the best time, and how the institute can be kept up. I don't know as there is time for any such discussion, but, if the gentleman who has just taken his seat has had any experience in this matter, I wish he would answer my question.

*Mr. Beard*. My experience in the direction of normal instruction in the institute is soon told. This is the fourth consecutive summer that I have held a normal institute five or six weeks at a time, in the months of July and August, in the State of Missouri. I finished the last one last Friday. We gathered in those institutes from fifty to seventy-five teachers who had actually taught—almost every member of the institute has actually taught school in the past year or years, and expects to go out and teach again in the schools of the state. They came together for normal instruction, and the plan we operated upon is this: A daily session five days of the week, of from four to five hours in length, with recitations and discussions. The balance of the day is devoted to preparation for the work. We resolve it the very first day into a school for instruction and practice. We have daily regular recitations in the common English branches contemplated in the institute to be taught in the public schools. It is substantially a general review of those subjects in a regular recitation, as we would have in any other school. This recitation work lasts about thirty minutes of each hour, followed by a discussion of about twenty-five minutes; criticism and discussion with reference to methods, and in reference to the presentation of subject-matter in recitation. Each hour, then, we have a recitation on some common subject or branch, followed by a discussion of the method and means of instruction; with a recess at the end of each hour for a change of base for the next operation. This, with one hour a day given to the philosophy of education, and theory and practice, is the daily programme. Of course, the evenings are given to discussions, lectures, etc. The institute was founded four years ago, and has been conducted in that manner substantially for the past four summers, in that state. Aside from the institute, the county super-

intendents in that state hold two institutes annually in each county; and if there is a sufficient number of teachers in a county to warrant the organization, it is their duty to organize and attend the normal institute. But my opinion is that these institutes, in the hands of inexperienced organizers and administrators, run into something which is very impractical, they become any thing but normal schools in their general characteristics, and furnish only an opportunity and a platform for the good ministers, etc., of the communities in which they are held, to go in and air their minds and rhetoric, and show themselves, and for old-time teachers to discuss problems and quibbles, and old-time questions that we care nothing about in the present day; and the time is spent with no actual value to the teachers. I claim that in all our states the normal-school institutes should be under state patronage, and conducted by two or three efficient normal instructors; and that they should be made, as nearly as possible, normal schools with only a short course, and let lecturing and wrangling be dispersed to the winds.

*Mr. W. F. Phelps.* From a partial examination of the notes of the distinguished gentleman who has addressed us this afternoon, as well as from some knowledge of his views gleaned from his report as school commissioner of the State of Ohio, I understand that he believes that the normal school should be a purely professional school, professional in the sense that there should be no academic instruction in it, and that the work should be entirely of a special character; the student should devote himself to a study of the principles of education, the laws of mind, and the application of those laws in the training and education of our youth. That is one theory of the normal school, and it is no new theory. We have heard it before, we have been discussing it for years, but I do not see that we are very much nearer unanimity on that subject now than we were ten years ago. Meantime, the good work goes on. The normal school on the field of Lexington thirty-three years ago has multiplied itself, and to-day we count them by tens, if not by hundreds. Now, what does that mean? In spite of discussing and theorizing, it means that these institutions have done a good work, and that they are doing it without regard to the particular theory which we entertain on the subject. That they have done a good work, and much work which is done by no other instrumentality, is proven by the fact of their rapid increase in this country, an increase which is unparalleled by any class of professional schools whatever. The logic of facts and the logic of events has settled a question, therefore, which the logic of discussion has not been able to settle. But I want to say a word or two in regard to this theory. I, too, hold that the normal school should be strictly a professional school. I hold that its sole aim is to fit teachers, broad-shouldered, symmetrical, swift, if you please, teachers who shall comprehend the nature of the great work which has devolved upon them as teachers, to go into the public schools and do that work of revolution which is required to be done there. I believe that the normal schools should be strictly professional schools. I believe that we have normal schools which are truly and exclusively professional schools, and yet they do much academical work. Now, sir, as I intimated in the paper this morning, there are a great many ways of teaching how to teach, and the more ways that we can present, the better for those who would be teachers. I do not know any one single method superior to all others. Methods may

change, they do change; principles are eternal. Principles can never change, but methods must change with time, with circumstances, with place, with peculiar conditions of society, with peculiar localities. So I would not teach any code of methods, but as far as I could discover what were the universal and unchanging principles of education, I would teach those, and then I would train my pupils to teach in the light of those principles. I will make my pupil superior to method. I will so prepare him that he will be able to devise methods himself, aided by the inspiration which those principles will afford him. I say, then, that it is possible for the normal school to be purely professional, and yet do a great amount of academical, so called, or general work.

Now let us look at this a moment. I find that the different views upon this question result from a difference in the condition of society and circumstances in which the gentlemen reside. What is good for Ohio, what may be good for Massachusetts, is not good for the prairies of Minnesota, or the prairies of Kansas. Massachusetts has been blessed with common schools for two hundred and fifty years. Ohio has been blessed with an efficient common-school system which has been in operation for perhaps thirty, forty or fifty years. I do not know exactly the history of it. Therefore there is material in Massachusetts and Ohio which can not be found in Kansas or Minnesota. We have n't the scholarship; we have n't the literature; we have n't the general culture in those western states which we have in the older states. That fact is a fact of immense significance in discussing and making plans for institutions for the training of teachers. I have had either the good or bad fortune to be connected with this normal-school work in the East, and I have had the fortune to be connected with it in the far West, and I have learned that various plans which have worked well in the East will not work well at the West. We must adapt ourselves to circumstances. Now in Minnesota, eight years ago, when this normal-school work commenced, I speak entirely within bounds when I say that there was scarcely even a good common school in the state. Why not? They had not the teachers to make them, and they wisely, in my judgment, concluded that the first step and the cheapest step, the most efficient step, towards securing good common schools was to start with a normal school. That being the conclusion, how must that normal school start? Here you are surrounded by young men and women who want to teach; they have not the knowledge even of the elementary branches, and if we use such a standard as to exclude those who had not a scholarship our institution must remain closed. No; I believe that the normal school is established wisely to build up the great common-school system of the country. To do that, it must go down to meet the common school as it is. It must go down to these schools and lift them up, and not set itself up on a high plane and say, "When you get up to us, we will let you come in." That is not the logic we must employ, nor the policy we must adopt in the West. That can be done in Massachusetts, it can be done in many of these older states, but it can not be done there. We must teach reading, and spelling, and geography, and grammar, and arithmetic, and while teaching them we must teach them with this conception constantly in view, that our students are learning them with a view to becoming teachers of these subjects. Now I hold there is enough in that idea alone to warrant a large amount of academic instruction, even in the normal schools of Massachusetts and Ohio.

I tell you it makes a great difference whether a student is studying a subject with a view to becoming a teacher of that subject, or whether he is studying it with a view simply to obtain a knowledge of it for general purposes. It makes a vast difference from what stand-point a student pursues a study, whether he is studying to become a teacher, or a merchant, or a farmer, or a business man.

Again, it would be very nice, very agreeable indeed, if we could banish academic instruction from our normal schools, but I have failed thus far in any community—in New York, in New Jersey, in Minnesota—to find young men and women educated in the public schools who possess a scholarship sufficient to enter at once upon a course of truly professional instruction. We can not go and select the best scholars in the public schools, we can take only such as come to us. We can not go into those institutions and make our selection, we must take such as choose to come, such as burn with a desire to become useful, to become teachers, and successful teachers—such we must take, and such we welcome. If their scholarship is insufficient, let us take hold and mend it, and let us do it with this notion in view constantly, that they are not only to become acquainted with the subject, but they are to be so taught as that, while being taught, they shall learn, by one method at least, the best method of imparting a knowledge of those subjects to others.

I say, then, that I believe that all this talk about purely professional instruction in our normal schools, exclusive of academical instruction, is simply impractical. It may be that in Cincinnati, in New York, in Boston, in our large cities, where there are perfect systems of public instruction which have been in operation for years, this system will be practiced; and the time may come when it will be practiced all over the country.

There is another fact that I wish to allude to here, and it is this: that our state normal schools must rely mainly upon those who come out of the schools in the rural districts, and every man knows that these district schools in the country are a knotty problem in this whole work of education. We all know that the poorest work is done there, that the scholars who come out of them are the most poorly prepared of any we can receive into our normal schools, but we must rely on those country schools mainly; and it is well we should, for it is the students out of which we are to make teachers who are to go back into the rural districts and become the teachers of children there. It has been said, I think the objection was made in this paper, and it is made elsewhere, it is a common one,—that our normal-school system is an expensive system. I do not sympathize with that feeling in the least. In the first place, if we expect to make education universal in this country, we must expect to pay for it; and, in my judgment, one reason why we get such poor results from the operation of our school system in this country to-day is that we do not pay enough for it. I do not know of any thing, of any combination of things, for which a free people ought to be willing to pay more liberally, or to be willing to spend money like water for, than for the cause of universal education. I do not care how much your normal-school system costs: if your money is judiciously expended, you will get value received, with usury. Will you tell me what price you would put upon a teacher thoroughly furnished, thoroughly cultivated, thoroughly inspired for his work? He is beyond all price, and it matters not



what the state has to pay for him, he is cheap at any price. Therefore I say that only in specially training scholars in normal schools, in schools organized and conducted with special reference to preparing teachers, rests our only hope of getting a supply such as will renovate and revolutionize the common-school system of the country and make it worthy of our support.

A word in regard to the normal institute. I am a friend to normal-institute work and always have been; for thirty years I labored in that cause. I believe in the normal institute just as far as it goes; the only trouble with it is, it does not go, and from the nature of the case it can not go, far enough. It is a valuable thing for those who can not go into and enjoy the more permanent and extended advantage of the training school. It is better than nothing, and that is about all you can say of it. For education, for the principles of education, for the formation of the characters of our children, is a matter which can not be learned in two or six weeks at a county institute. I say if it is so superficial and trivial a matter that its principles can be learned in a few weeks at an institute, then I think we had better abandon the whole business; that is my view of that. Therefore I say that these institutes can never be substituted for permanent training schools in America. We have only one hope for the permanency of the teachers' profession, we have only one hope of raising up competent teachers capable of teaching the entire mass of teachers in this country, and that is in the multiplication of these permanent instrumentalities for their training, no matter what it costs. I believe we must grade this work. Here is an idea that seems to be lost sight of in the East. They say they are not prepared to advocate elementary normal schools; they forget that there is Minnesota, that would swallow up all New England, that the territorial area of that state is nearly equal to New York and Pennsylvania combined; that there are counties there larger than a whole state here, and therefore, if the normal school is to be carried home to the great mass of the teachers, it must be localized. Any one who looks at the statistics from the normal schools in most of our states will find that the great majority of the students of each of them live within a limited radius of the institution itself. That is the case almost every where; it may not be so much so in Massachusetts, where the railroad system is so extended that nearly all of the inhabitants live within four or five miles of a railroad. In the West it is different; we must carry the institution down to the people; we must localize it; and we must make the profession of teaching a permanent employment by thoroughly training those who are to engage in it. I hear much said about fluctuation in this work, that every three years one-third of our teachers leave the business. Very well, why? I will tell you why. It is not because all those young ladies get married, or half of them; it is because of the consciousness that they are not qualified for their work. It is that which leads most of them to abandon it. It is not because they would not be glad to follow it if it were remunerative, if they felt themselves competent to do it; if it were to command that price which good teaching ought to command every where. I say, therefore, that if we want to make the teachers' profession a more permanent profession, we must establish permanent institutions; we must localize those institutions, and we must raise up talent, talent which will command a good price. How the salaries of female teachers have been advanced within a few years we all know. I have been compelled re-

cently to employ one of my old graduates, a lady who came from an obscure rural district, and was never heard of beyond the vale in which she lived, at a salary of \$1,200 a year; and that is the case with many. So far as my observation goes, the people are willing to pay liberally, provided they get value received. I know no work, no occupation, for which people are more ready to be liberal than the occupation of teaching. I undertake to say, Mr. President—Miss President, excuse me [Miss BRACKETT having taken the chair in the temporary absence of the President], I undertake to say now that a work has been done through these training schools in that far northwest state in eight years, which could not have been done without the agency of these normal schools. A large part of this work has been to teach the branches which the pupils are to teach, and there has been a work accomplished there in eight years which thirty years without them could not have begun to equal. The graduates of those schools are every where sought for, more rapidly than they can be provided, and they occupy the best positions, according to grade, in the state.

I do not like to occupy your time, but there is one more thought to which I wish to call your attention. It seems to me we do not give it sufficient weight in the discussion of the question. The value and the power and the efficiency of the normal school is not to be measured by the number of graduates it sends out, or by the number of scholars who are taught by those graduates. I am one of those who believe that the indirect advantages which grow out of the establishment of these teachers' seminaries are far greater in value than is recognized. I graduate a class of twenty young ladies and gentlemen who have spent two or three years in the atmosphere of the institution, partaking of its enthusiasm, drinking in its inspiration, full of that *esprit de corps* which should characterize the profession,—I say I graduate that class of twenty persons, and they scatter all over the state; and each one at once becomes the centre of new life, and of new influence, teaching perhaps fifty or sixty little ones, and coming in contact with other teachers, who, noticing the benefits of their training and their experience, are, of course, stimulated to greater effort, and thus the good work goes on. I believe that the influence of the graduates of these schools is practically illimitable. I believe that the wisest efforts that have been made in this country for popular education are the expenditures which have been made in behalf of these training schools. I think we owe much more to them than we are willing to concede. I believe that they have done more to elevate the standard of education in this country than all other causes combined. I believe that the teacher is the prime motive power in this whole work; the work of reform and of inspiration must commence there, and whatever price we may be compelled to pay for it, it is cheap.

But I have occupied vastly more time than I intended. I do feel deeply upon this subject. I do not know that it is necessary that we should all harmonize, I do not sympathize much with this notion that all our normal schools must be conducted on a uniform plan. I think this uniformity hobby is a hobby, and a mischievous hobby. I do not believe in uniformity of text-books to the extent that many do; nor do I believe in so much of uniformity of method as a good many. I think that these schools, as I said before, should largely adapt themselves to the conditions, the circumstances, the time and the place

in which they are located; and that in so doing they will promote the great ends for which they were established.

*Hon. J. P. Wickersham*, of Penn., thought that for many years, yet, there would be two classes of teachers—one permanent, the other temporary. This necessitates two grades of normal schools. In one of these only professional work will be done; in the other, academic as well, where a few months' instruction will be given.

We are drifting towards the time when these graded normal schools will be established.

*A. Bronson Alcott*, of Concord, Mass., said he doubted if the American system of education were equal to that of Ancient Greece. He would go to Athens for a model rather than to Germany. He believed in idealists as well as practical men. Men must be up in the clouds to see what is going on. Common sense was valuable, but uncommon sense was more so. *Mr. Alcott* developed this line of thought for some time, and closed the discussion.

The Committee on Nomination of Officers for the Department, for the year ensuing, made the following report:

*For President*—A. G. BOYDEN, of Mass.

“ *Vice-President*—J. ESTABROOK, of Mich.

“ *Secretary*—M. A. NEWELL, of Md.

The report was accepted, and the persons named were elected as officers of the Section.

The Section then adjourned.

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### THIRD DAY.

THURSDAY—AUGUST 8th, 1872.

The President called the Department to order at a quarter before three P.M.

The following paper was read by *Geo. P. Beard*, of Mo.

#### THE RELATION BETWEEN MATTER AND METHOD IN NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

The end and aim of all genuine normal instruction is the realization of the highest possible type of the true *teacher*.

To actualize this ideal, a complete course of normal instruction will embrace all necessary means.

Teaching, as a science, when complete, will embody all principles that come from the correlations of mind and matter. As an art, teaching is the right application and use of these principles in the actual practical work of imparting knowledge.

The teacher—the product of normal instruction—is the artist in this most refined art, and that course of instruction and training that succeeds fully to qualify and equip him to work most intelligently and skillfully, to build in the human mind with human science, and lead out the faculties into vigorous and symmetrical growth, deserves the title Normal Instruction.

The mode of the art is what we understand by “method” in this paper.

Normal is *philosophical method*, or, in other words, it is the necessary and proper expression of the principles involved.

I. The most prominent impression, therefore, that our subject is calculated to make is that there exists a logical and necessary relation of a means to an end between matter and method in a course of normal instruction.

The normal instructor must use matter as a means to the end that the normal student shall master right methods of instruction.

The twofold factors of teaching ability, when analyzed in the light of a true philosophy, are a knowledge of subject-matter and the science of the human mind. In no other way can the normal student master the science of teaching, and so acquire intelligent skill in methods, than by a mastery of these complementary and correlative means.

As a general principle, the artist of whatever name, and however exalted his ideals, can only succeed in his art through a knowledge of the material on or with which he works, and a practical familiarity with and skill in the use of suitable means.

Can we expect results on other grounds from the teacher-artist in the most difficult and delicate of arts? Rather, is not the importance of the mastery of means enhanced infinitely when the material is the ever-living, self-acting human spirit, and the means the infinitely-varying and unnumbered truths of human science?

In the familiar words of the adage, “knowledge is to the mind what food is to the body”; but not every variety or an unlimited quantity of food is suitable for the right physical development of the child.

Instinct will guide the child in a measure to select and appropriate food, but the child needs, and Divine Wisdom has ordered, that the broader experience and the maturer wisdom of the parent shall provide food suitable in quantity, kind, and quality, to promote right physical development.

Much more in the higher, the spiritual nature, where the infant is weaker and guided less by instinct and impulse, is it necessary that parent and teacher provide, and rightly appropriate, the truths of science, that knowledge may become the very bread of life to the child, of which it shall eat and never hunger.

From this standpoint, it is plain that the teacher must know “what” to teach in order that he may fill his high office worthily and well.

He must get before he can give.

The spiritual appetite of the child demands *bread*, not a *stone*. The teacher will succeed only in proportion to his ability to adapt and impress scientific truths of every variety and kind at every stage of mental growth. It is absurd to predicate or expect success from method without matter; both the “How” and the “What” must be mastered.

Yet not in a general or unqualified sense. The teacher needs to pursue, at least as a review, a thoroughly scientific comprehensive and condensed course

of study of the elementary or fundamental subjects such as are ordinarily embraced in the requirements of statute for common schools, and this with the predominant purpose of using the results of his studies and instruction for the practical purpose of teaching the same subjects.

II. But subject-matter must be adapted to mind. Knowledge must become subjective with the teacher, and he must study it objectively in the light of psychology.

He must be able to interpret his own consciousness and the psychological facts and phenomena that fall continually under his observation, and classify scientific matter, and arrange it in a course of studies in logical order.

He needs for himself to construct a science of sciences and philosophy of teaching, and these objects can only be realized by deductions and generalizations coming from the correlations of mind and matter,—subjects he must first master.

It is the function of normal instruction to elevate the normal student to this plane of scholarship.

It is absurd to attempt to erect any thing like a philosophical theory of teaching by any other than the essential twofold means of a mastery of subject-matter and the science of mind.

So-called normal schools may train and graduate candidates for teaching with but the most superficial knowledge of matter and mind, skilled in a degree in the use of certain methods and means, philosophical in themselves, but hobbyized, and in the hands of the pretentious charlatan only less dangerous than the old-time routine traditional methods because less arbitrary and unnatural, and *not* on account of a disparity of qualifications in *favor* of the modern quack in teaching. There is a philosophy of teaching, and the true teacher is the philosopher as well as artist.

He alone has mastered method who is able to give a rationale for his methods, and all his practice in the underlying principles.


To make method one's own, and one's self in action, theory must be actualized by practice.

Hence the demand for practice teaching in normal schools.

Whether in the normal class exclusively—using it as a practice class—or in the model or practice school as an adjunct or department of the normal school, observation and practice are indispensable tests and means of realizing right methods. Regular daily practice, in accordance with the theory of teaching—practice, under the eye and exacting criticism of the normal instructor, and the self-guiding intelligence of a mastered science of teaching, will alone lead to a mastery of philosophical methods.

III. If we have discovered, in the logical relations of matter to method, an essential means and a desirable end in normal instruction—how—more specifically,—shall matter be used most effectively as a means of professional instruction and training? and, What modifies use and impairs instruction in our normal schools as they are organized and administered?

Matter and mental science should be taught at the same time with theory and practice in methods. Subject-matter, mind, the science and art of teaching, are subjects separable in thought, but practically one.



Method is best taught in the very act and experience of a scientific analysis of subject-matter in the light of mental science: this is normal instruction.

How to teach reading at a given point or stage of advancement is best taught and learned by considering what is the average mental power, what the prominent mental activity, what is appropriate subject-matter at the given stage, with actual practice in a suitable variety of the same, and all methods will thus receive their value and significance from the nature and relations of all that is embraced in teaching. Whether in number, or language, or any other subject, the same general truth holds, the philosophical basis of method is manifold, and prominent among the necessary means is a complete mastery and use of subject-matter.

This highest triumph and test of scholarship is eminently characteristic of, as it is highly important in, the normal school.

And not alone for the realization of method, but for the reputation and influence of normal instruction as an agent of improvement—the highest standard of scholarship should be erected and sustained in our normal schools.

The normal school comes to answer the demand for improved instruction, and it proposes to do this by improving the teacher. This is logical and should be effectual practically.

Instruction in our schools is and will be precisely what our teachers make it; its results in the scholarship of pupils of the schools will not be better than the scholarship of the teachers, and their qualifications will be what normal instruction has made them. If that is faulty, imperfect, pernicious, the inevitable result will justly condemn it. What, therefore, we would put into our schools we must first put into our teachers, and that through normal instruction. If, therefore, scholarship, in the broadest, best meaning of the term, is desirable, it must be secured through normal instruction. But,

IV. Some will admit this demand and yet claim that the candidate for the normal school must bring all of this in his preparation for professional instruction. Method is all, matter nothing, in normal instruction—that instruction in matter is the exclusive province of the common school, academy, college, and university—that the normal school will accept only worthy graduates of these fully ripe in scholarship, as candidates for professional instruction.

This is a beautiful theory, and only lacks the element of practicability to commend it.

Normal graduates should excel in scholarship. Candidates for normal instruction do not. The majority of all, especially in state schools, have a very faulty preparation. They are sons and daughters of the laboring classes, with meagre advantages for early elementary training, with less scientific culture, yet with a latent talent for teaching, with a disposition to make the most of every opportunity and means of instruction; and though they lack mental discipline, culture, pecuniary means, and time to pursue an extended course of preliminary instruction in subject-matter, may not the reputation of the normal school for scholarship be sustained, and yet admit numbers of those who bring unmistakable evidence of native ability, a sound body, sufficiently mature age, and a controlling desire to teach? shall we not so adjust the standard of admission that we may secure in our normal schools the greatest possible number

of born teachers, and by a wise and philosophical course of instruction make each the best possible teacher when he graduates?

Practically, then, for the widest as well as the highest results of normal instruction, actual existing facts must be considered, can not be profitably ignored, will with all wise organizers modify plans of normal instruction.

Whilst it is true that a few of the ripest scholars among the graduates of our colleges and higher institutions may profitably pursue a professional course of studies, building a theory from the broad generalizations they have already made in a liberal course of studies, still, the mass of candidates for normal instruction are not, and in our day will not be, of this class.

However desirable the strictly professional course, guarded and sustained by an extremely exacting test of scholarship for admission, practically, it is a dream we can not hope at present to realize, except in approximation, in the centres of educational advancement, and with the city normal, department normal, or other restricted sphere of the normal school.

For the country common school we are under the imperative necessity of instructing in matter as a necessary means of establishing right methods, and of teaching and disseminating right fruits of scholarship: else the normal school will graduate empirics or quacks, or be destitute of pupils.

V. Another faulty theory makes the normal school little other than an academy, and for the practical purposes of normal instruction merely a model school for observation and imitation. These schools may bear and boast of the name Normal, but they lack the essential feature prominent in all true normal schools—the study and practice of the theory and art of teaching.

Scholarship, general intelligence, all that broadens and beautifies manhood and womanhood, give power and value to the teacher; but through all of these, like a shaft of living light, must run the unifying, utilizing idea of teaching-power. How rightly to use and impart knowledge—how to inspire and guide life—these questions must be answered by a course of normal instruction; and however good of their kind (as academies), and though the richest and rarest fruits of general culture ripen in them, still, for the predominant purpose and determining aim of normal schools, they must fail.

Nor is the scholarship of the normal school of a lower grade and narrower in scope because practical and special: rather, the opposite are the necessary results.

In reaching beyond to compass its end in the right use knowledge, it includes the best results of the general or academic course of studies. The true teacher is impelled by the high ideal and the consequent sense of duty as teacher, to press continually onward and upward “to higher things.” With him knowledge must be converted into teaching-power; the crowning act and end is, not to know, but to teach.

Incompetency may win in other callings, in teaching—never.

Learning may wear the title scholar, but practical skill in the right use of learning alone can merit the *teacher* of mankind.

VI. A true theory of normal instruction embraces and embodies the merits of both the academic and the (so-called) strictly professional theories, yet mounts higher in the excellences of its results as the dome rises above its bases

and is itself nobler than any of the complementary parts, and opposing yet reciprocal forces which hold and build it in well-rounded symmetry, the crowning glory of all material and means that enter into the structure below.

But how shall the proper equipoise of matter and method be secured?

How can satisfactory results in scholarship be realized at the same time that proficiency in method is attained?

Normal instruction in matter should be eminently scientific.

Central principles should be developed in logical order and relations by complete and thorough analyses.

The centres of crystallization should be found and fixed, and laws of thought discovered, and habits established that will bring all truth in future investigations into proper relations and combinations.

By blackboard synopses, discussion, mutual careful criticism, accurate definitions and rules, however brief the course, instruction will be sufficiently suggestive and scientific to rouse and direct the teacher to the right results.

Normal instruction should thus be suggestive—life-giving—quicken the faculties of the student into vigorous activity, and guiding to right results.

Thus will right formulas of reasoning, right habits of investigation, and, in general, self-repeating results be reached.

"Nothing so prolific as a few things well learned," and, again, "not how much, but how well," are proverbs in point. Like poetry and other fine arts, teaching may thus, by hints and methods, suggest more than is expressed.

But normal instruction should not be fragmentary and unmethodical, rather ought the shortest as well as longest course to be thoroughly logical and systematic. To this end frequent consecutive reviews are indispensable. I can speak from well-attested experiments in normal work, when I testify to the value of weekly written reviews on the merits of which students receive their standings in scholarship. It is a just and equal test of attainment. It serves to bind in logical relations and build into wholes the more fragmentary daily work, and the reward of an honorable standing is a sufficient incentive to hold the pupil to his best efforts. It serves to give a broad and clear conception of general subjects at the same time with the power of minute and accurate analysis.

In final examinations I have found the most gratifying evidence of the wisdom of this plan.

In these and other respects the normal school should be a model to itself, illustrating a wide variety of philosophical methods for any advanced course of instruction.

A thoroughly scientific analytical course is also the necessary and best course for a basis of primary methods.

A child in knowledge is not a fit teacher of children. It matters little how venerable for age and experience, "he is a blind leader of the blind" whose methods are the vague and unmeaning motions of ignorance and inexperience. To see the whole subject in a clear conception of all its parts, to select and appropriate matter at every step of primary instruction with a nice appreciation of the relations of subject-matter to the infant mind, requires the ripest scholarship the rarest tact and experience in teaching. Hence the propriety of a thoroughly scientific course of instruction as a basis of right methods in elementary



teaching. Hence the absurdity of employing the incompetent and unskilled in the primary school, where none but those who, in the light of a broad intelligence, and varied experience, can see the end from the beginning should be employed.

The oneness of science gives oneness to method in this particular, it furnishes guiding general principles for all teachers in all subjects, in all circumstances.

The general principles of mental science, the order of development of the faculties, the particular faculties most active at a given stage of development, the relations and reciprocal influences of the faculties, and the philosophical classification and mutual adaptations of matter and mind, furnish principles for systematizing and harmonizing methods. In these principles are the reasons for given general methods.

Why the teacher should be ever ready and accurate in expression, never relying on text-books, keenly alive with the subject and appreciation of modes and means of illustration: every grace of manner and every form of method will find its rationale in the underlying principles in the science of teaching. And still harmony of method is not sameness, but a unity in variety. One in essentials, varied in non-essentials, will be the individual methods of the best teachers.

Normal method is not a something that can be formulated and stereotyped and made uniform with all normal graduates.

The normal school is not a manufactory of machines of one and the self-same pattern.

The teacher is shorn of his best strength if required to be less or other than himself.

Normal instruction is philosophical in proportion as it develops the individuality of the teacher. On the side of individual peculiarities there comes in the element of variety. Natural bias, predominant tastes, confirmed habits, special likes and dislikes, and other personal traits peculiar to the individual, serve to modify and give individuality to method. This is wise and well, and normal instructors will do well to remember that in this sense method should be one's own; that the normal problem is not how to multiply a given style of teacher, but how to make the most and best of the greatest possible number of individual teachers.

VII. What we need is a well-methodized exhaustive philosophy of teaching: a philosophy so complete and authoritative that it shall unify and harmonize normal instruction in all our normal schools—a philosophy that shall furnish the basis of a normal course for one year, or one week, for city or country, for Maine or California. Of such a consummation I trust we have an earnest in the broad and exhaustive researches in philosophic inquiry, and the wide variety of experiment in this direction.

Not that normal schools more than normal teachers shall be uniformly the same, but like teachers, alike in essentials, unlike in non-essentials.

It is impracticable and unwise to organize normal schools in Massachusetts and Missouri on precisely the same pattern. The wise organizer will take account of the actual surrounding facts, and build and administer accordingly.

The standard of literary qualifications on entering, the relative time given to

matter and method in the course, the time of the full course, and other features of the given course, will vary with the actual circumstances.

The normal school is a vital organ in a living organism. If it is to be a life-power, it must be in and of the school system of which it is the centre. Whilst it should be orthodox in embodying the true philosophy of teaching, it should be rooted in the felt wants, the sympathies, pride and patriotism of the people. Only when so rooted will a normal school prosper. When so rooted it will be recognized the very heart of the given school system.

The points we have aimed to establish in this paper are —

1st. Subject-matter is an essential means of securing philosophical method in normal instruction.

2d. Mental science is an equally essential and a complementary means, and should be taught simultaneously, with the special practical end of promoting teaching ability.

3d. Subject-matter must be used continually in normal instruction as a means to illustrate principles and methods of teaching.

4th. The exclusively academic theory of normal instruction has been criticised.

5th. The equally faulty (so-called) strictly professional course is found impractical.

6th. Suggestions of a broader and better theory are ventured. And

7th. Some few qualifying hints on the true theory are given.

There is a vision of the coming time, "a dream that is not all a dream," of a stage and state of educational advancement in which the ripened harvest of normal instruction shall gladden the hearts of educators and people; a time when the seed sown by the genuine normal teacher shall have borne its fruit universally abroad through the land; a time when from the common schools of the whole country shall graduate a generation thoroughly taught and trained in all the fundamental truths of human science; a time when students entering the normal school will be prepared to enter upon a strictly-professional course of instruction, when it will no longer be necessary first to *get*, but it will be the high privilege and advantage of the normal student to *use, matter* as a means of securing *method*.

The normal school is itself the self-reformatory agent, and can, alone, emancipate itself from "the ills it now bears," by doing, better than any other school will, the necessary work of reforming instruction in subject-matter, and so inaugurating this new era of normal instruction; and, unless the normal instruction of to-day is wisely and largely self-reformatory, educators will dream in vain of that "good time coming," and we shall work and wait in vain for the realization, through normal instruction, of our ideal — *the model teacher*.

#### DISCUSSION.

The discussion of this subject was begun by *R. G. Williams*, of Vt. He said he did not agree with the essayist. It is admitted that teaching is a profession; and if so, the normal schools must be elevated to a professional basis. He

did n't see how normal schools could ever reform the practice of academic teaching while continuing it.

*Chas. H. Verrill*, of Penn., thought that if only professional work was done in normal schools, many of them would have very few pupils.

*J. C. Greenough*, of R.I., said that the plan of giving professional instruction only would not preclude the attainment of knowledge by the pupil, for in instructing how to teach a subject, knowledge of the subject-matter itself is acquired if the pupil is deficient.

The discussion of this subject was closed, and *Miss J. H. Stickney*, of Boston, opened the discussion on "Practice Schools—Their Uses and Their Relation to Normal Training."

There seems to be, she said, judging from the papers and discussions that had preceded hers, a variety of views respecting normal work, and a great misapprehension of the relations of the old and new in normal belief. It seems to be forgotten, or kept out of sight, that practice schools and the study of methods, the two salient features of the new school, are not its only characteristics, but only its distinctive ones, added in it to the commonwealth of both old and new. Something *more* than a practice school is needful to save the teaching from the narrow limitations of apprenticeship.

We must look to the wants of the schools to be supplied in deciding what normal schools shall do. As a place for professional training, the normal school has no greater claims upon the public purse than the schools of medicine and law, so far as the people are concerned to whom its advantages are given. Like the government military school, it is made needful for the safety and prosperity of the country, and it is bound, therefore, to foresee the future wants and the highest possibilities of the common public education. It will thus combine the functions of a congress, senate and patent office—for suppression of useless and encouragement of useful plans and principles. Practice schools under auspices so high are safe mediums between thinkers and workers. In many, if not most of our state schools, the introduction of so-called teaching exercises takes the place of practice schools,—the class of ladies and gentlemen being at the same time subjects and critics of the work of one of their number. She doubted the wisdom of many of these. At the best, they are artificial. While the race of children is so accessible, it seems foolish for adults to make believe they are children; besides, the ruse is seldom well practiced, and the teacher can never lose sight of this double character far enough to be self-forgetful and earnest. With a *class of children*, to whom the lesson is a novelty, the teacher forgets every thing that is unreal, and in a moment, through sympathy with her pupils loses herself and appears at her best.

Again, attempts are made to reach teacherly ability through discussion, some times to very good purpose when general matters are concerned, but as a rule, discussion belongs to people *after* they know, which begs the whole question of normal work. To attempt to tell *how* we will do before we have ever done *is* working from the wrong end. Many who can do the last creditably will fail in the first, while the proverb about its being cheap work to talk belongs to another class of minds. It is often a matter of many words for a simple thing hiding

its real character. A remark made by Dr. JARVIS about its being easy to tie a bow-knot, but a thing of great difficulty when one attempted to *write* or *tell* how, is in point in regard to this matter. Practice schools will enable teachers to acquire much which they can not get in any other way. They enable the normal schools to meet the wants of the public from its teachers, in that they both develop and test practical efficiency. By practice schools she did not mean model schools—schools of thirty, but rather a school of eight or ten grades, with sixty pupils in each grade. She would have them exactly like other schools, and would prefer that the teachers should go to the school rather than that the pupils should go to the teachers. She would allow those learning to teach to observe the teaching of classes for a while, and then gradually permit them to take charge of classes. They should not be left in the sole charge of classes. It is injurious to teachers as well as scholars. The former have a right, since their practice is instrumentary to their development, to be watched and criticised by the regular teacher of the class. In her own practice school she requires her scholars to observe the teaching of a class, and to make a complete report of its every stage. When they have become able to give such a report, they are allowed to make criticism upon others. The growth of character coming from contact with children every day in a practice school is far beyond that which can be attained in any other way.

The most earnest attention was paid to Miss STICKNEY during her remarks by the entire audience, which crowded the room. No exercise has attracted more attention or been better received during the session of the Association, and none received higher compliments.

A business meeting rendered an adjournment necessary at the close of Miss STICKNEY's remarks, and in a few well-chosen words the President, C. C. ROUNDS, thanked the members for their courtesies during the sessions, and declared the Normal Department adjourned *sine die*.

WARREN T. COPELAND, Secretary *pro tem*.

## DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

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TUESDAY, AUGUST 6th, 1872.

The Department met at the Girls' High-School building, at 2:30 P.M. In the absence of its President, Dr. McCOSH, of Princeton, D. A. WALLACE, Vice-President, took the chair. Rev. Dr. A. BLAKELY led in prayer. President SCRIBNER, of Indiana, was appointed Secretary *pro tempore*.

President WALLACE, of Monmouth College, Ill., presented the report of the Committee on "College Degrees," as follows:

### COLLEGE DEGREES.

*Report on College Degrees, to the Department of Higher Education, in the National Association, at the meeting in Boston, August, 1872.*

The degrees on which your committee has been appointed to report are conferred by colleges and universities, with the view of recognizing and designating each a specific measure and kind of attainments. Some of these degrees are conferred after examination, in certain prescribed subjects; others are conferred without examination, and are known as "HONORARY DEGREES."

#### I. OF THE VALUE OF COLLEGE DEGREES.

1. The *actual value* of college degrees is by no means inconsiderable. The B.A. and similar degrees are eagerly sought. Thousands spend much time and money to obtain them. The honorary degrees are held in comparatively low estimation; it is fashionable to speak of them with contempt: yet, college officers know that they are highly prized, and that not a little effort is put forth by worthy men to secure them for their friends. Still, these degrees are not what they ought to be and might be made.

2. A degree ought to mark unerringly the attainments of its possessor. It ought to be a passport to the confidence of men. It ought to protect the public against self-conceited ignorance and pretentious quackery. When a college or university deliberately marks a man as B.A., M.A., D.D., or LL.D., it should be regarded as an indorsement of incalculable value to the candidate, and of no inconsiderable importance to the public. The *potential* value of college degrees is very great.

3. The conditions on which the value of these degrees depends, and which must be met that their actual value may approximate their possible value, are the following:

(1) The course of study required for each degree should be arranged on the soundest principles. Every degree should presuppose a curriculum "suited to form the highest type of man, the most honest student, the most industrious explorer, the most patient laborer, the most solid, sound, broad, wise thinker, the most practical discriminator, the most judicious educator, the best-grounded divine." No course of study not suited to accomplish these ends should entitle to a degree.

(2) A fixed kind and measure of attainments should be demanded uniformly of all the candidates for each degree. The requirements in all the colleges, in all parts of the land, however much they might differ in subjects or textbooks, should be substantially the same in their power to educate. The venerable institutions of New England should demand no more for the B.A. degree than the newly-organized colleges of Kansas or Nebraska; the latter no less than the former. It should not be necessary to ascertain a bachelor's college, to estimate the value of his degree. The requirements should be fixed and inflexible. They should not be of that self-adjusting character so easily adapted to the attainments of the candidate.

(3) Candidates for the B.A., M.A., and similar degrees, should be examined critically, patiently, and thoroughly. These examinations should be so conducted as to ascertain not merely the knowledge of certain specified textbooks or subjects, but, more important than either or both these, the measure of intellectual skill and power attained by the candidate. Upon the completeness of these examinations much depends.

(4) No degree should be conferred on any candidate found destitute of the required qualifications. No considerations of family connection, wealth, influence, or public favor, should lead to the admission of an unworthy candidate. All such should be rejected at once. Common honesty requires this course. It is wrong to grant a degree to an unworthy candidate, certifying him to be what he is not. It is an injury to the candidate and a trespass on the rights of the public. Every college should scrupulously avoid perpetrating falsehoods in conferring degrees.

(5) For the D.D. and LL.D. and what are known as honorary degrees, the qualifications should be as well defined as for the lower degrees. To ascertain these by examination is impracticable, yet the same end could easily be attained in other ways.

If these conditions are fulfilled, the actual value of college degrees will be very nearly as high as possible.

II. We now ask attention to some thoughts concerning the method of raising the value of these degrees.

We have already seen that the immediate ends to be attained are, the reconstruction and perfection of the courses of study; the unifying of these so that the requirements for any specific degree shall be substantially the same throughout the land; critical, thorough and patient examinations; and the uniform rejection of all who fall below the standard. These are the conditions; how shall they be met?

We have in the United States hundreds of colleges and universities authorized to confer degrees. Many of these institutions are dependent for their existence on public charity. In a large number of them the candidates for degrees are very few. The professors themselves are commonly the examiners; unpaid examining committees commonly render but little assistance. The faculty of each college passes on the qualifications of its own candidates. Those familiar with the practical workings of the present system know that it is very difficult to establish and maintain a high standard; very difficult to make examinations as severe as they ought to be; very difficult to prevent unworthy candidates from receiving the degrees which they desire. An accommodating system that passes every one that *goes over* the prescribed course, and rejects no one who presents any color of valid claim, is much the easiest of administration. The wealthier an institution, and the more numerous its students and professors, the easier it is to confer degrees only on the worthy; the number, however, that is extricated from the difficulties in which the large majority of our colleges is entangled is by no means large. We may call on them to elevate their standard, and maintain it unflinchingly; they may resolve to do these things; yet the result will be far from satisfactory. The practical standard in colleges generally may be raised somewhat, yet it will fall below what it ought to be. The difficulty lies in the system on which the degrees are conferred. In all our institutions of learning, with scarce an exception, the same men fix the courses of study, give the instruction, conduct the examinations, pass on the qualifications of candidates, and confer the degrees. Under this system great improvement is impossible.

But it may be asked, why should not instructors themselves examine, and pass on the qualifications of candidates? We reply:

1. In at least ninety per cent. of our colleges, the number of candidates for degrees is small. To increase it is considered very desirable. Hence, there is a constant pressure on professors to make examinations easy, to admit and retain the unworthy.

2. The students in a very large majority of our colleges are the children of those on whose benefactions the colleges depend for their existence. Professors are constantly under a strong pressure to gratify their benefactors. They will pass their children if it can possibly be done. It requires more than average moral courage to reject the son of a friend and benefactor. Such are permitted to pass; more can not consistently be required of others; thus the standard is lowered and the value of degrees depreciated.

3. Every professor commonly becomes attached to his students. His sympathy with them is, and ought to be, that of a father or elder brother. He consequently overlooks their failings and magnifies their excellences, honestly overestimates them. Many times gentlemanliness of conduct or high-toned morality is regarded as a compensation for lack of scholarship. Hence, professors admit to a degree candidates whom impartial examiners would have unhesitatingly rejected.

Other considerations confirm our position. It is a fact that all who apply for admission to very many colleges are received; but few who are admitted fail to

be promoted with their classes; but few, very few, candidates for a degree are rejected.

Indeed, so numerous and potent are the influences that operate to lower the standard in our colleges and universities that it is surprising that our degrees are not absolutely worthless.

But how shall the difficulties of the case be overcome? We answer, the British University system suggests the true solution of the problem.

The Oxford and the Cambridge Universities embrace two distinct organizations, the college and the university. The college furnishes a home to the student, supervises his conduct, administers discipline, and gives instruction. The university, which includes many colleges, prescribes the qualifications for degrees, conducts examinations, and confers degrees. The university professors have but little to do in preparing undergraduates for the B.A. examinations. This is the almost exclusive work of the college tutors and lecturers. The Queen's University in Ireland, including the colleges in Belfast, Galway and Cork, is organized on the same principles. The London University is managed by a senate consisting of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and thirty-five fellows. It gives no instruction whatever. Its sole work is to conduct examinations and confer degrees. Its colleges are scattered over the British Empire. The candidates for its degrees may study at any one of these, or privately. Its work is done thoroughly and impartially. Its degrees are held in the very highest estimation. Now it seems to us that in the London University we have the plan on which our American degrees may be made as valuable as any in the world. The following is an outline of the scheme:

1. Let each state organize a university senate, composed of a definite number of members selected from among the oldest and most scholarly of its citizens. In this body each college and university should be represented.

2. This senate should have power, and it should be its duty:

- (1) To prescribe the qualifications for each degree conferred by the institutions represented in it.

- (2) To enact the statutes regulating all examinations for degrees.

- (3) To conduct in accordance with these statutes all such examinations by examiners of its own appointment.

These examinations could be conducted by printed papers, either at the seat of each institution of instruction, or at some convenient place where all the candidates could be convened.

- (4) To pass on the qualifications of candidates.

- (5) To certify the result to the colleges and countersign their diplomas.

Other powers might be vested in the senate by the legislature.

3. The degrees should be conferred by each college or university on its own commencement-day, and the usual diplomas given, which should bear the seal both of the institution of instruction conferring the degree and of the university senate, and be signed by the officers of both.



4. The entire expense of this senate, and of conducting these examinations, should be borne by the state.

5. The consent of the university senate should be required in order that any college or university might confer an honorary degree. For all such degrees the necessary qualifications should be prescribed definitely, and they should be conferred on no man destitute of them.

6. This senate should have power to distinguish those who are entitled to special honors, and to establish scholarships and fellowships for the encouragement of the worthy.

In relation to this scheme we respectfully submit the following remarks:

1. It was suggested by the following passage in President McCosh's inaugural: "I have some times thought that as Oxford University combines some twenty-two colleges, and Cambridge eighteen, so there might in this country be a combination of colleges in one university. Let every state have one university to unite all its colleges, and appointing examiners and bestowing honors of considerable pecuniary value on more deserving students, something such a combination as this, while it would promote a wholesome rivalry among the colleges, would at the same time keep up the standard of erudition. Another benefit would arise: the examination of the candidates being conducted not by those who taught them, but by elected examiners, would give a high and catholic tone to the teaching in the colleges. I throw out the idea that thinking men may ponder it."

2. It is clearly within the power of the state to establish such a system. Its aim is the protection of the citizen against fraud and imposition, and this certainly is one of the highest duties of the state.

3. The advantages of this system are numerous:

(1) It would make the qualifications for degrees the same throughout any one state. Measures could easily be adopted to make them uniform throughout the United States, and indeed throughout Christendom.

(2) It would secure, as nearly as possible, impartial, complete, thorough examinations.

(3) It would secure, without reasonable doubt, the rejection of the unworthy.

(4) It would bring all the degrees of all our colleges to par. We care not where a national bank note is issued; being secured by United States bonds, it is at par in every state. So our degrees, being sanctioned and guaranteed by the university senate, would be of very nearly uniform value every where.

(5) As President McCosh has suggested, it would operate as a powerful stimulus to both students and professors. The student would know that nothing but absolute attainments would secure him a degree. Professors would know that the university examinations would soon reveal sham work. An institution many of whose students would fail to pass would soon be deserted. The good would grow and flourish; the poor would decay and die.

This method of securing the conditions on which the value of degrees de-

pends is respectfully submitted. On other plans this end might perhaps be attained as completely as on this. We are, however, firmly convinced that the great essential is the separation of the instructors from the examiners, and we do not see that this can be accomplished more effectually otherwise than on the plan herein proposed.

DAVID A. WALLACE, Chairman.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Prof. J. Stevens*, of Granville, Ohio, commended the paper. The plan would work a revolution.

*President Eliot*, of Harvard, said: The difficulty that the professors are the examiners is the difficulty with all. The want is to find suitable persons to act as examiners. They failed at Harvard to secure such examining committees as they needed. None but practical teachers make good examiners. The plan proposed had been considered by at least two of the Massachusetts colleges. He would like to have it tried for a time. Degrees were justly held in low estimation. Legislatures were responsible for this.

*Professor Stevenson*, of University of West Virginia, thought a change necessary.

*President Wallace* stated that nearly all examiners were unpaid and incompetent. The state should pay the best salaries for this work, should import men, if necessary. It would pay the state well to do this. Unworthy men can go from one college to another and obtain a degree.

*Mr. Sawyer*, of New York, affirmed that there were the same difficulties in examinations in academies as in colleges.

*Mr. Baird*, of Baltimore, declared the difficulties great. An examiner must be a practical teacher. Could see no way to overcome this difficulty. As regards degrees, matters are growing better. Degrees are more worthy than they were a few years ago. The true plan was as suggested, to add the initial of the college to the degree.

*Dr. Gregory*, of Illinois. The American people are practical and care nothing for degrees, even though they come from Harvard. Degrees are ignored, except with a few, though desired at the time of graduation. The question is not what a student is when he leaves college, but what he becomes afterward.

- *Dr. Read*, of Missouri State University. American degrees are not so humiliating after all — English degrees are no better than ours. No legislation necessary. Let public opinion and the colleges themselves regulate this matter. Let Harvard do as she will, her course will have more effect than any legislation that can be devised.

*Dr. Gregory*. If Harvard would abolish degrees, in twenty years no more degrees would be given in this country.

*Prof. Stevens*. In the West, only a few of those who enter college graduate. Genuine young men appreciate thorough instruction. Put them under thorough-going teachers, and they will not stay long unless they come up to the mark.

*President Tappan.* There are about thirty-five institutions in Ohio authorized to grant degrees, but few students are graduated by the inferior institutions. Some of them are only second- or third-rate academies. Students prefer the better schools. The question is how to know the better ones. Would not the plan of the committee help to show where good work is done?

*President Eliot.* It would be preposterous for every state to have a university. Massachusetts could not support one — not sufficient wealth nor population.

*President Wallace.* The United States needs but one university. A degree means a certificate of certain attainments. The examiners must be the most successful teachers in the country.

*Prof. Henkle*, of Ohio, said the paper had hit upon one excellent point, that is the inspection of college work. He had witnessed as poor instruction in the colleges of Ohio as in the common schools. The work of professors must be inspected.

*Prof. Stevenson.* The best teachers should be in the common schools.

*Mr. Littlefield* asked President ELIOT if the degree of A.M. at Harvard was opened to graduates of other colleges. President ELIOT answered it was, if their A.B. course was equivalent to that of Harvard, otherwise it must be made up by special examinations.

The subject was laid on the table, to be called up any time.

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## SECOND DAY.

WEDNESDAY—AUGUST 7th, 1872.

The Department met at the Institute of Technology. Its first business was to listen to the report of the Committee, appointed at St. Louis, "On Greek and Latin Pronunciation." Prof. TYLER, of Knox College, Illinois, presented the report, prefacing it with the following remarks:

MR. PRESIDENT: In presenting the report of our committee, allow me to refer very briefly to the discussion which took place before this body a year ago. In the paper which I then had the privilege of presenting, I referred to three objects which we desire especially to attain. 1st. We wish for a method which will tend to give us a uniform pronunciation throughout the whole country. 2d. We wish to place the Latin and Greek in their proper relation to each other. 3d. We wish, in our method of reading, to bring out as much as possible the character of each language. Experience proves that we can not hope to attain these objects by the use of the English or so-called Continental systems. In fact, our only hope seems to be in an earnest attempt to restore the pronunciation of the ancients themselves.

The present committee was appointed to try what could be accomplished in

this direction. It has, however, by no means been our expectation that we should reach a satisfactory result at once. It is rather our hope that future investigation may give us far more accurate instruction in this matter. We do not claim that we ourselves have no doubts upon some difficult questions. We can only say that we all substantially agree upon the method as presenting the ancient sounds of the letters as nearly as we can discover and reproduce them.

In one or two instances, at least, we are conscious that we might have made our theory more thorough and consistent. Thus *ei* undoubtedly sounded more like *eh-ee*, but practical difficulties lead us for the present to adhere to the more popular pronunciation. Being confident that we are recommending a step in the right direction, and hoping that the future may lead to still better results than we can now attain, we would beg leave to submit the following

## REPORT.

### GREEK PRONUNCIATION.

The committee appointed to draft a plan for the pronunciation of Greek, which shall agree as nearly as possible with the pronunciation of the ancients, would recommend the following method. It should be remarked in explanation that the most of the rules here given are copied verbatim from GOODWIN'S Greek Grammar.

*α* as *a* in father, *η* as *e* in fête, *ε* as *e* in men, *ι* as *i* in machine, *ω* as *o* in note, according to most grammars should be sounded like French *u*, German *ü*. Differences must be allowed in practice, varying from *oo* in moon to French *u*. In large numbers of American schools, owing to the difficulty of sounding the French *u*, it is pronounced as *eu* in feud. Short vowels merely shorter than the corresponding long ones:—*αι* as *ai* in aisle, *ει* as *ei* in height, *οι* as *oi* in oil, *υι* as *ui* in quit or *wi* in with, *αυ* as *ou* in house, *ευ* as *eu* in feud, *ου* as *ou* in uncouth, *α, η, ω* as *a, e, o*. The consonants as in English, except that *γ* before *κ*, *γ* and *χ* has the sound of *n*, but otherwise is hard, that *θ* is always like *th* in thin, that *σ* is always hissing like *s* in sin, and that *χ* is always hard like German *ch*.

Accent is to be observed as stress on the syllable where it is written.

HENRY M. TYLER,  
LOUIS KISTLER,  
JAS. R. BOISE.

### LATIN PRONUNCIATION.

In fixing upon a method for the pronunciation of Latin, the committee have followed mainly the authority of Professor Lane, of Harvard. They would recommend the following scheme:

*a* as in father, *ē* as in fête, *i* as in machine, *ō* as in tone, *u* as in rule; when short, the same sounds shortened. *y* as French *u*, German *ü*.

*ae* as *ai* in aisle, *au* as *ou* in house, *oe* as *oi* in oil, *ei* as in eight, with a slight exaggeration of the English sound *ee* at the end, *eu* like *eh-oo* rapidly pronounced, *ui* as *we* in English.

The only guide which is necessary with regard to the diphthongs is to remember that they are pronounced as their component elements sound, drawn close together.

The consonants should be pronounced as in English, with the following exceptions: c and g always have their hard sound as in car and garden; t is always hard as in time, s is always sharp as in sin, i and u when consonants (j and v) as y and w.

HENRY M. TYLER,  
LOUIS KISTLER,  
JAS. R. BOISE.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Prof. Harkness*, of Brown University, spoke as follows: The question is a vexed one, and will be for a long time to come. The English method is for us the best. Some think the Italian the best, others the Modern Greek, still others the German. I once believed the original Roman system the best, but on investigation gave it up. The ancient pronunciation is lost—for ever lost. The Germans themselves distrust the statements which they have published.

What is the Continental method? Germans pronounce by one method—the Italians another—the French another. Each pronounces according to the analogy of his own language. Scholars have determined to continue this way till the ancient method is rescued. An objection to the Continental is, it is foreign and requires too much time. To speak according to the analogy of one's own language is the most simple.

*Prof. Crosby*, of Nashua, said he should feel amazingly ashamed if he did not pronounce according to the English method. English is to be the language of the nations. The great convocation at Rome could not understand each other, though they spoke according to the Continental method.

*Prof. Bartholomew*, of Cincinnati, Ohio. We all agree that we want uniformity. The Continental does not tend in this direction. His experience was that the Roman method required less time than the English.

*Prof. Henkle* was on both sides. The English method was not according to the analogy of the English language as far as accent is concerned. His school had returned to the English method. Public men will not adopt the new method readily.

Subject laid on the table, the time having arrived for the lecture of *Prof. E. C. PICKERING*, of Boston, on "The Method of Teaching Physics by Laboratory Practice and Objectively."

In a note to the Chairman of the Publishing Committee, *Prof. PICKERING* states that the condition of his health has been such during the summer as to prevent his writing out an abstract of his lecture for publication.

At 3½ P.M., *Prof. SHALER*, of Harvard, gave a lecture on

#### NATURAL-HISTORY EDUCATION.

For nearly a half-century students of nature have been demanding a place for the observational sciences in the plan of a general education. For a long time there seemed no great inclination to change the system of culture so that natural science in any of its branches should share with the humanities and

mathematics in the work of intellectual development; but within the past decade the long-continued criticism of the old teaching systems has begun to have a very great effect upon the public mind; and natural science, so long repelled, is now gladly admitted to our schools, is even unreasonably welcomed as a deliverer from all the great difficulties of education. The sudden change in the attitude of the public towards natural-science education has thrown a great burden upon those who have been urging its claims. It will no longer answer for them to assert the intellectual value of the training which they feel it to be in the power of this science to give. They must proceed to show a practicable way of giving this training. Within the next generation, natural science must justify the claims it has so long and so vigorously made of its training-power, or run the risk of disappointing the public confidence which has been so suddenly and generously awarded it. If it fails to justify the claims that it has made, there is a great reason to fear a strong reaction towards the ancient methods of instruction, resulting in its entire neglect.

These considerations make it evident that it is the duty of all those who feel it to be a matter of importance to our race to have the study of nature brought to bear on its development, to have none but effective methods of instruction used in the teaching of the natural sciences. A glance at the methods now employed in teaching these branches will be enough to satisfy any one that they are generally vicious and calculated to neutralize any benefits naturally belonging to these studies. The old standard studies, the languages, mathematics, and the range of matters commonly called philosophical, gradually determined certain methods of teaching, which were doubtless on all accounts the best possible for the purposes required to be kept in view in teaching these matters. The most prominent features in the machinery of the old system of education, the *text-book* and the *lecture*, are doubtless quite well adapted for instruction in those branches of knowledge where the main object is to acquaint the student with the opinions held by eminent authorities, or to give him the advantages arising from intellectual contact with a great master in any department of human thought. But precisely those features which prove advantageous in the use of these instruments in the old subjects of study are necessarily in the highest degree hurtful when we apply them to the teaching of the natural sciences. Every student who has experienced the advantages arising from the study of any science is clearly aware of the fact that it is to the *observational* character of his work that he owes the benefits which he has derived from it. A given amount of knowledge obtained at second hand from an observer through a text-book or the lecture-room would not have had the same effect upon his intellect as if he had gained it by his own original work.

It is not the mass of information contained within the records of our sciences which gives them their importance as educational agents, for only a very small part of this can ever be made useful by the teacher; it is the habits of investigation they teach and the relation which they establish between the student and the phenomenal world which give them their real value. A man may have the accumulated store of facts of a whole science and yet be intellectually poor, while the thousandth part of that information gained by the independent use of his faculties may enrich him far beyond his fellows.

The fact that the old machinery of education was devised to accomplish a

very different work from that which must be undertaken in the teaching of natural science has imposed a heavy task upon those whose duty it is to do this work. New methods must be adapted to the new object: to remake even in part any such wide-spread organization as our teaching system is a task of peculiar difficulty, one which can only be accomplished successfully at the cost of long-continued labor and expense, such as can not be readily assumed by an individual, but can only be accomplished by the concerted labor of many workers supported by endowed institutions. Unfortunately, nearly all our educational institutions to whose coöperation we must naturally look for the support which is required in the effort to establish a new system of teaching are already committed to ancient methods of instruction, which have come into use in a time-honored system. The governing bodies of these institutions are naturally unwilling to believe that what has worked well in one branch of study should not succeed in another, so the text-book and the lecture-room with their didactic teaching are set to work to accomplish a certain amount of cramming. This sort of culture is naturally profitless; one might as well sow grain on an untilled field; but it may serve as the basis for a hasty adverse judgment on the merits of natural-science education.

Of the two methods of the old system, the text-book and the lecture, the latter is unquestionably the least objectionable as a means of teaching the zoölogical sciences. The text-book is far worse than worthless, for almost all the purposes which the teacher of zoölogy should have in view. There are one or two works, such as DANA'S Manual of Geology, which have great value as convenient encyclopædias of the more important general facts of the science. But in proportion as these exceptional works are good as encyclopædias, they become worthless as text-books: as they grow more valuable for reference, they become less suited for the purposes of cramming. But the mass of text-books which infest the path of the student of nature are, in their methods, utterly vicious, and in the highest degree calculated to root out the scientific spirit from the unfortunate student who may be so unhappy as to work with them; moreover, the body of fact which they contain is generally that which belonged to the science of several decades anterior to the date of their publication. The growth of our sciences is so rapid that it is not possible to stereotype even its outlines. That which is true to-day must be modified to-morrow. Facts which were of cardinal importance a year ago are of secondary value to-day; those problems which now lie in the direct path of the growth of our science may be a part of its half-forgotten traditions before five years pass away. The best text-books I know were antiquated before they went to the press.

Some of the worst difficulties of text-book teaching are obviated in the instruction given in the lecture-room. Supposing that the teacher there is intelligent, and has it in his power to keep himself informed of the latest discoveries and changes of opinion in his science, he may, at least, provided he is not guilty of that cardinal mistake made by those who write their lectures or speak from old notes, give to his audience a real picture of the science of the time, and if that audience contains no one desirous of fitting himself for the work of a naturalist, or any one who wishes to understand the real methods of the science, if all that is required is that his hearers get the sort of knowledge of natural history which they would get of arithmetic taught in the same way, he has

done his work very well. But to the student who needs to be taught how to approach the study of nature, who must be guided and assisted at every step towards the methods of the trained naturalist, the lecture-room alone has little value. As an adjunct to teaching of a practical kind, a means of correlating the work of the student, showing him new points of view in the studies he is pursuing, or as the means of presenting to him the history of investigations which may serve as examples of the proper method of pursuing a study, they may have the highest value.

The history of lecture-teaching in European schools, where that work has been carried on upon an extreme scale, is very instructive. Take for instance the lecture instruction of the Jardin de Plants. The principal features in the organization of that institution come from the revival of science during the French Revolution. The enthusiastic people who gave the shape to its plan of working evidently thought to make it the greatest school of natural history in the world, and with this intention organized systems of lectures admirable in scope, delivered by the ablest students in their respective departments, and free to all. For a half-century these lectures have been maintained in the spirit in which they were founded. But, despite the facts that they were uniformly of a high character and always free to all, they have not produced any result such as was expected by their founders. To the few, the very few, who can obtain permission to work in the very restricted laboratories of the museums of the institution these lectures have a great value as affording an important collateral source of information, as exemplifications of the methods of able workers, or as giving new points of view of different subjects. But as a means of teaching science in a broad way, or of creating a public who can at least find sympathy with the investigators in the different lines of study, they have little value. More investigators have been made, more taste for natural history developed, in the cramped laboratory of many a German and French naturalist, where half a dozen students at a time got their training as coworkers of their teacher, than has come from the magnificent system of the Garden of Plants.

Wherever natural-history education has been attempted, it has been successful in proportion to the opportunities which it gave to students to come into close relations with investigators, and to pursue their studies in an investigative way.

In devising any plan for instruction in natural science, this fact should be kept steadily in view, unless we would repeat the unhappy experiments of which the European schools show us so many examples. But in attempting to arrange any scheme for instruction in the biological sciences in such fashion that the students shall be trained as an individual worker, an apprentice, is trained, there comes at once the principal obstacle arising from the difficulty of dealing with a number of students in this way. The investigator may admit to his work-room from one to half a dozen students who are properly grounded in the science, and not find his work hampered by the time he gives to their training. But to put a class such as the natural-history sections of Harvard College into the laboratory of a working naturalist, without some careful system for their training, would be without good result for the students and disastrous to the naturalist's work.

Moreover, there will always be a certain class of students who, without the



ability or the desire to make working naturalists, still wish to know something of the methods and the results of the science in the most advantageous way. A university system must make a place for this class as well as for those who may intend to pursue the science in a more extensive way. It is one of the most important things for the science that there should be an educated public, trained not only to admire its results, but to understand its methods as well. From such a class the investigator may hope for effective sympathy and support. To create this class, the student whose special pursuits carry him into other fields should have come for once into the sympathetic relation with the naturalist which is obtained only by taking some share, however small, in his work.

An effort to meet these somewhat complex needs has led to the scheme of zoological instruction now in use in the museum of comparative zoology at Harvard College. The students who receive instruction there are divided into three classes—those from the college, those from the scientific school, and advanced students pursuing special lines of investigation. We will first consider the nature of the work done with those who come to the museum of comparative zoology, where the zoological teaching of the university is done, as students in the elective in elementary zoology. This is designated as a junior elective, but last year the section was composed of about thirty juniors, twelve seniors, and eight scientific students. This class is, for purposes of instruction, divided into small sections, not to exceed a dozen students. These are required to be at their work-places in the museum, at certain times, for six hours per week. Here each student is given certain objects, if possible living things, which he is required to try his observing powers upon. It does not matter much how little he sees at first, provided that which is seen is found out by himself alone. The most independence in the labor of the student is at this stage of his work to be secured at all hazards. When it is possible, each student has his own separate material. As the work begins about the first of October, it generally happens that the student is required to take his first step by going into the neighboring field to catch the first living thing he can put into a glass bottle or underneath the small bell-glasses with which their tables are provided. One gets a grasshopper, another a cricket, a third a spider. It is demanded that the student shall now begin a careful, succinct account of what he can observe about the creature. With no other help than simple direct questions and a little urging, the student should be able to get a great deal of accurate information about the thing he has in hand. There are not only the simple questions concerning the form of the animal, but the more immediate problems which they should be brought to face—those connected with the bodily functions, how the creatures walk, swim or fly—how they breathe, how the food is ingested, etc., etc. Most boys will recoil a little from a dead thing, but I have never found one yet who could not be interested in a lively way in any sentient thing. There seems to be a natural sympathy between the human mind and every living object; it catches the eye and arrests the attention, while the dead body repels the untrained eye and mind. Nature herself recognizes only the living; the dead she soon puts out of sight. It is best that the students should begin their work by capturing some living creature themselves in the first place; there is something learned about the thing at that very first step. But

an equally important fact is, that the student, when he has been to the trouble of getting an insect, or any other animal, uninjured, into his possession, has learned something of the difficulties of the work of collecting, and after a few such experiences he is sure to be more ready to obey the injunctions of care in the handling of specimens which may come into his hands for study. A small number of living things will serve to give profitable occupation for the first three months of the student's work. He should be required to draw, as carefully as possible, all that he can see upon the outside of the creature that he may have in hand. This, with his notes, should be kept in the laboratory, and serve as a guide to the teacher in measuring the work done by the student. The laboratory has a few simple aquariums, where some of our fresh-water fishes and salt-water invertebrates are kept for study. These receptacles should be as simple as possible, and as small as may be, as the student wants near views. An aquarium where the object can get more than ten inches from the eye is a nuisance in a laboratory. After a few months of practical experience with living things, which should have given the student some knowledge, largely self-acquired, of fishes, insects, molluscs, and radiates, the student should be put to the study of some one group of animals, where he can be brought to see relations as they exist throughout any of the extended series which may be found among animals. I have, after several years' experience, come decidedly to prefer, for this purpose, the series which is found in the radiates, or at least in those two classes which give us hard parts. The polyps and echinoderms are admirable for the purposes which the teacher should have in view at this stage of the student's progress. In the polyps the beginner learns, by comparing the growth of plants with that of corals, the identity of those laws of association of individuals in those widely-remote groups; he learns, also, the indefiniteness in the individualizations of animals at certain stages in the organic series. In the echinoderms the opportunity for the study of homology of parts is admirable. The student also learns here to advantage, the difficult lesson, how far mere modifications of proportionate development may change the external form. When he has seen for himself the essential identity which exists between the two dissimilar looking things, the echinus and the star-fish, he has crossed the "*pons asinorum*" of the science.

It time admits, it is well to take up another of the great series, that which is found in the geological history and structure of the cephalopods; if this truly wonderful series be well conceived by the student, he will have grasped firmly upon some of the deeper and more abiding truths of the science of life. The series which leads through the ammonites has an especial value, inasmuch as it gives the student a clear conception of the relation of development to time or geological succession.

In this, the first year's work of the student, he hears but one lecture a week on the subject of zoölogy. These forty lectures are meant to be used as a means of giving a sort of connection to the rather disjointed information the student has gained for himself. During the preceding year, a few of the simpler laws affecting geographical distribution of animals were discussed, with special application to the cases of the animals they had studied. Methods of observation, with examples from the great memoirs of the science, which are shown and explained, are also valuable adjuncts to the work of training.

This method of teaching without text-books and without class-work requires a large expenditure of time on the part of the teacher, but it is well repaid by the results on the students. In no other way will it be possible to compel them to use the intellectual resources of the science.

The second year of the course is intended to afford to the student a good general knowledge of the history and condition of the great problems of the science. This is done by a system of lectures and readings given three times a week during the whole year. Last year this course on modern zoölogical opinions occupied one hundred and twelve lectures. Besides this lecture-room work, each student is required to spend four hours each week in the laboratory upon some special investigation work. He may, for instance, undertake to acquaint himself with the general anatomy and affinities of insects; with the general osteology of the mammalia, or any other question which can be profitably approached in a limited time.

Should the student remain after the completion of this required course in the college electives, he would be put into the position of a worker in the science, getting only occasional counsel and guidance from his teachers: this sort of aid would come from the officer of the museum in whose department the special work of the student might lie.

Provision is made for thorough instruction in microscopy. There is a competent teacher especially employed for this purpose, and the laboratory is well found in microscopes and other necessary appliances. The effort is to acquaint the student with the methods of using the instrument in the most practical way.

Students who, during their second year, may desire to turn their attention towards geology receive a special training in palæontology, in order that they may be enabled to identify fossils belonging to particular formations. This training, being limited to a single year, is necessarily quite incomplete; it serves, however, to give the students an outline of the history of life in time, with special reference to our American formations.

During the year effort is made to give the students some knowledge of the distribution of life in the field and on the sea-shore, by excursions, taking the Saturdays during the session and a large part of the vacations.

The instruction given in the natural-history course in the scientific school differs only in the fact that about double the amount of time is required of the students, and they are enabled to traverse far more ground. The plan of the course is essentially the same.

The features in this plan to which I desire especially to call attention are the following:

1st. The entire absence of text-book teaching and its replacement by practical work in the laboratory.

2d. The use of living specimens, as far as possible, to teach the outlines of morphological zoölogy.

3d. The importance given to note-books as a means of keeping up a continued examination of the student.

4th. The extensive arrangements made for instruction in the history of the science, especially its modern phase, a matter which is entirely neglected in our American schools.

5th. The introduction of systematic instruction in microscopy.

6th. The continued effort to place the student as soon as possible in an independent position as an investigator in the field of natural science.

The place of the teacher in this system of instruction becomes something very different from what it is in the work of didactic teaching. Here the object in hand is the real teacher, and he who bears the name is only the spur, at least at the outset of the work. As the student goes further on his career and gains a measure of confidence in himself, this limitation in the teaching can be done away with: when he can stand alone he may be aided with safety, but not till then. Therefore, during the first year he is required to abstain, as far as possible, from reading any thing that bears on the work he has in hand. In the second year he should learn the history of the science, as far as it is necessary for him to get a good idea of the modern questions in all their important phases. This may be so arranged as to lead the student naturally to the difficult art of using to profit the work of other naturalists.

As soon as the student has advanced far enough to do some original work, however simple, which has a distinct value, he should be allowed to publish it in some scientific journal. There are disadvantages connected with early publication, but they are more than balanced by the stimulus to effort and the self-respect which some small success insures. Even more important than this are the advantages which come from a connection with learned societies, where the student may be made familiar with the methods of discussion and gradually accustom himself to take part therein. Students at the university have the advantage of opportunities in two societies of this kind—one in Cambridge, and one in Boston.

In closing this essay, I must call attention to the fact that this system of instruction is nothing more than the development of the method used by Professor AGASSIZ during the whole time of his work as an active teacher in the university. From him came the all-important principle of making the student a naturalist from the very beginning. It is this system, in his effective hands, which has done much to put the young naturalist of America in the front rank of the workers who are to give shape to the scientific history of the last third of this century.

The one great obstacle which the teacher of science must meet and master is the element of the commonplace, which to the uneducated mind wraps all the world. The ideas of depth and mystery seem to have gone from our youth. It is not the place here to discuss the cause of this strange want: there are probably many influences at work to produce this mental myopia: the task of the educator is to destroy this accursed thing, which consigns to utter barrenness every mind it penetrates. Books can not do this work; if it can be done at all, it is by bringing the student personally in contact with the universe, by setting him at work on its problems.

### THIRD DAY.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 8th.

President SCRIBNER offered prayer.

Professor F. A. MARCH, of Lafayette College, Pa., read a paper on the

#### METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

What should be done in teaching English in high schools depends a good deal on what has been taught to scholars when they enter the high school.

They ought to have been taught general descriptive grammar thoroughly, so as to know the definitions, the paradigms and rules for syntax by heart, and be able to apply them surely and promptly to sentences which they understand, and which have no peculiar idioms in them.

They ought, also, to have mastered some system of notation, by which any sentence can be put on paper or the blackboard with its words so designated by signs, or by arrangement into diagrams, that the analysis and parsing of it may be made plain to the eye. This system should have been mastered as an art, not only so that it is understood, but so that it can be used easily, promptly and accurately when any sentence is understood. From the day on which a scholar begins grammar, he should every day hand in some written grammar-work on slate or paper, like sums in arithmetic; and the preparation and explanation of this work should be his main grammar-lesson up to the time he enters the high school, just as doing sums and explaining them is the main work in arithmetic.

Suppose scholars thus prepared, how are they to study English in the high school? There are four principal direct uses in studying English: 1. to understand what is said in that language; 2. to speak it well; 3. to write it well; 4. to master English literature. And there are three remoter ends: 1. to master the language as a matter of scientific knowledge; 2. the acquisition of knowledge of language in general; 3. general culture.

Whatever the scholar is to be taught to do, it should be, as far as possible, by practice on the very thing to be done. General power culture is a glittering generality. Most minds run in very narrow ruts. To learn to speak, the scholar should be made to speak. To teach him to write, set him to writing. He wishes to master literature: then he must work to attain the mastery of particular master-pieces of literature.

An intelligent listener is rare. Most men hear only enough to tell whether you are with them or against them. The accounts which so-called educated and intelligent listeners will give of a lecture which they have heard are amazing. The teacher should make it necessary for all to listen to every word he utters, and enforce clear and prompt response.

To teach the *understanding and utterance* of English speech it may be said:

1. Good habits of speech in conversation are caught rather than taught.

There should be times of free conversation in school, when the teacher may serve as a model and censor at once.

2. There should be declamation of suitable selections from standard authors.

3. There should be lessons on common errors of speech. I do not mean slang, so much as incorrect syntax and use of synonyms and idioms, such as are brought up in DEAN ALFORD'S Queen's English. Too much study of slang makes students too much masters of slang.

4. Translating from the languages is really study and practice in speaking English of the best kind, and should be carefully improved as such.

5. There should be, in all studies which admit of it, recitation by topics. The scholar should stand up, face his audience, and speak to them at length on the topic on which he is to recite. This last is, on the whole, the most efficient means I know, in school, of giving power of connected discourse. It includes the repetition of the substance of lectures, and of the less formal instructions of the teacher.

To acquire *skill in writing*, there must be practice in writing; general study of grammar, skill in talking, even skill in formal discussion, may not make a skillful writer. That comes from practice in writing. The student in the high school should write much, I mean write often and write carefully. Every day he should have to write something. It is an old saying, To study without pen in hand is to dream; and year by year, with the growth of the press, grows, also, the relative importance of skill in writing.

Students should be trained in the very kind of writing which they are to need. The business man should have had practice in writing business letters. Book-keeping is studied at the high school. Students keep sets of books which put them in certain imaginary business relations. They may be made to write letters to the fictitious persons with whom they have transactions. They may be set to answer advertisements in the newspapers. They may be organized in committees to examine and write reports on certain facts, such as come up in the common experience of citizens at meetings of private corporations or town meetings. They may write descriptions of meetings, of persons, of conversations, of books, of buildings, of machines, of scenery. They may keep a journal. They should also write in connection with their studies; take notes of lectures, make notes of general written statements upon topics both for ordinary recitation and at more formal written examinations. But written examinations should not be permitted to supersede altogether the public speaking-out of the old time. They should also write in connection with the study of classic authors.

The great work of the high school in English is the *study of the master-pieces of English literature*. As the Anglo-Saxon grammarian Ælfric says, *Stæf-craeft is se ðaeg the thæra bôc angyt unlycth*, grammar is the key that unlocks the understanding of the books. The language of literature is not that of common speech. It is an ideal language, shaped to peculiar forms by men of genius under the direction of an idea of the beautiful. The main object in the study of it is to re-think the thoughts of these men of genius. It is the richest birth-right of a cultivated race that they enter into the thoughts of their ancestors. The youth who, if they had no classic speech, could do nothing better than watch birds and bugs to scare and kill them, can, by means of speech

almost in childhood to the highest thoughts of all the ages before them. It is the best birth-right of the American to think the thoughts of WEBSTER, and WASHINGTON, FRANKLIN, NEWTON, MILTON, SHAKESPEARE, CHAUCER, and the Bible.

To use this birth-right properly, it is necessary to study the works of these masters, and the course of the high school ought to include such study.

The course should be methodical and progressive. The grammar work should be arranged in progressive series, and the authors should make a series suited to the grammar work term by term, and also progressive, as parts of the history of literature.

The grammar course should begin with analysis and grammatical equivalents. Some good grammar should be studied. The author selected should be easy to understand, and interesting biographically; and the book selected should also be interesting in its history and contents. FRANKLIN'S Autobiography, IRVING'S Sketch-Book, The Words of WASHINGTON, are of the right sort. They belong to an interesting period, the first of American independence. They are representative men of that period. The works are representative works. Now from these representative works should be picked representative passages, and on these representative passages the time and study of the class should be mainly concentrated for a term. Short lessons (five to ten lines at first) should be given. A written analysis should be handed in, special attention should be paid to the relations of the clauses and sentences to each other, and the basis in the nature of thought for each mode of expression should be pointed out, as far as may be. Let there be a lesson of this kind four times a week. Then there should be weekly essays on assigned topics,—the life of the author, his contemporaries, his works, the particular work studied, an outline of such parts of the work as are not to be gone over in the minute analysis, a summary of the results of the analysis, giving the number of times certain leading grammatical forms occur in each passage, and explaining the reasons for the different proportion in which such forms are found in different passages. Essays on such topics as these, with subordinate points more or less fully mentioned, should be so managed that the life and times of the author may be understood, and his work seen in its true relations as a representative work. The students should be directed to hunt up for themselves the material to be embodied in the essays. To acquire the habit of investigating specific subjects and writing out results tends to make Bacon's full man and exact man at once; and, while it removes the terrors of composition-writing, it is really a most powerful means of quickening thought.

With the second term the class might take up the history of the cases, and the words derived from pronouns. For this an author similar to the first may be taken. The case-endings in actual use in English are few. The history of the possessive -s, -r (in *her*), the dative -m, -r (in *him, them, her*), and the plurals -s, -en (*oxen*) -ren (*children*), and the vowel variation (*man, men; mouse, mice; foot, feet*), may soon be learned; but there are a large number of derivatives from pronouns, which are of the nature of formations by case-endings, which are very interesting and important, and may well have special attention and iteration for a term. Thus, from the pronoun *that* we have *then*, accusative of time, *during that*; *thence* = *thences*, genitive of place, *from that*; *there, at that*; *thither, to that*; *the in so much the more*, instrumental, *by that*; *thus*, instrumental of *this, in this way*. From *what* we have the similar *set, when*,

*whence, where, whither, why, how*; and so from other pronouns. The explanation of conjunctions derived from pronouns, like *that*, will bear repetition. Meantime the analysis, and the written discussion of the author's life, times, works and fame go on as in the first term.

The next term may be taken up the history of the verb. For this BUNYAN is an author. He has many uses for the auxiliaries and the subjunctive which attract attention. For example, he habitually uses both the old forms of the perfect and the pluperfect, *have* with transitives, *be* with the old intransitives, *when they were gone over the river*; *when they were escaped out of the dungeon*; and the like.

The next term the derivation of words may come up. MILTON is good for that. Scholars who are studying Latin and Greek may look up all the derivations in WEBSTER'S Dictionary. But work almost as useful may be done by mere English scholars. They should study some class-book of etymology in which words of the same root are grouped together. At recitation they should be called on to give kindred words in English to those in the text, and to explain the connection of thought between them. Thus, on beginning *Paradise Lost*, *Of man's first disobedience*, the student may say for the derivation of *man* that it is akin to the noun *mind*, and to the verb *mean*, and signifies *one having mind, one who means his acts*. This knowledge is no less valuable because the student does not know Sanskrit *man* (think). So for *holiday* he may say that it comes from *holy* and *day*, and took its present meaning from holy days having been kept as merry-makings rather than fasts. He may go on to say of *holy* that it is akin to *heal, health, hale*, and to *whole*—the *w* being a modern blunder in spelling; and so *holy* means *healed, whole*, in character. This is good work in etymology, though he may not know that it corresponds to the Greek *καλός*, beautiful, and so tells a tale of the races, one of whom found perfection, *wholeness*, in beauty, as the other did in *holiness*. There is hardly a word in English whose derivation and original meaning can not be illustrated and fixed in mind by this association with kindred words, and students who study English in this way will get a hundred times as much useful and interesting information about etymology as students of Greek and Latin who have never studied English. For a summary of a term's work, the student may count up the words of Anglo-Saxon origin, and those of Latin origin, and compare their effect on the style, and explain the reasons for their use.

Another term may be devoted to the study of synonyms. The knowledge of these comes naturally in connection with the explanation of the meaning which the words have by derivation, and the mastery of it is the flower of that practical linguistic scholarship of which elegant writing is the fruit. Another term the laws of prosody should be taken up. SPENSER is a very good author for it. At the same time take up *phonology*, the laws of sound and spelling. Learn how SPENSER pronounced, and the nature of the changes since.

Another term or two or three may be used for the application of the same laws to CHAUCER.

And the student who has mastered the lessons now prescribed will be prepared to bring his knowledge into connection with rhetoric, dramatic art, the art of poetry, and criticism.

An oration of WEBSTER, in which the orator's art shall be pointed out, sentence by sentence, word by word; *Paradise Regained*, which MILTON thought a model of epic art; a play of SHAKESPEARE, on which all knowledge and all



critical power may be lavished with constant delight, and should be used freely and manfully to condemn as well as to applaud; and an outline of the history of English literature, may fill up the course of any high school.

It will be seen that little confidence is felt in rapid sympathetic reading in class to excite love and admiration of the great classics; just the reverse, minute and profound study, long continued, often repeated, is the great need. The main difficulty in teaching English, to one who can teach any thing, is the difficulty of making the students work up lessons beforehand, the fatal facility of extemporizing English. To understand and master and love an author, we must dwell with him line by line, word by word. The formal means to secure this are the study of etymology and the abundant use of writing. Handing in a written analysis makes sure that it is studied. Written derivation papers make sure that the dictionary is turned. Synonym papers have a similar use. Papers giving outlines of books, or an account of critical opinion, compel the students to read these books and opinions. But in this study, as in others, eminent success must come from the enthusiasm and vigor of the teacher. If that can be had, such studies as these will not only lead to an acquaintance with our best literature, but also to the scientific knowledge of our own language and language in general, and in an eminent degree to general culture.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Mr. Hoyt*, of Providence, asked if he would adopt the same method in CHAUCER as in SHAKESPEARE, also the earlier writers. *Prof. March* answered, he would adopt the English method.

*Dr. Read* thought MILTON would not understand a modern edition of his works.

*Prof. Greene*, of Brown University. We never apply to the English methods which belong to dead languages. In the dead language we reach thought through the dictionary. In English there is no conscious prearrangement, as in Latin. There is a germ, and out of it springs a thought.

*Mr. Tuttle*. The topical method in any science is sufficient to produce thought. Extempore compositions are very effective to produce good results.

On the bill for a National University, *Dr. Hoyt* of Madison, Wisconsin, declined to enter the discussion. *President Eliot* was totally opposed to the bill. *Dr. Hoyt* stated that *President Eliot* was in a minority—one in five hundred. Nearly all the leading educators in the country were in its favor. The National Teachers' Association in three consecutive years had favored such a university. *Mr. Northrop* opposed the bill for the reason it would be fatal to other important measures, neither could this bill pass.

It was voted the bill pending in Congress be referred to a committee. *President Eliot*, *Dr. Hoyt*, and the President of the University of Alabama, were made that committee.

The officers elected for the coming year were:

*President*—DAVID A. WALLACE, Monmouth College, Ill.

*Vice-President*—J. D. RUNKLE, Massachusetts.

*Secretary*—W. D. HENKLE, Ohio.

J. W. SCRIBNER, Secretary.

# DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

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## FIRST DAY.

The Department was called to order by the President, JOHN HANCOCK, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio, and the organization was completed by the appointment of A. P. MARBLE, Superintendent of Schools, Worcester, Mass., Secretary.

The first exercise was the reading of a paper on the "Extent, Methods and Value of Supervision in a System of Schools," by H. F. HARRINGTON, Superintendent of Schools, New Bedford, Mass.

### MR. HARRINGTON'S PAPER.

[Before I announce my subject, I take occasion to say that, in cordial deference to the spirit of the age, I recognize woman as the equal of man in all matters pertaining to education, and wherever in this paper I use the word "man," it is as a collective noun, including both sexes.]

I am to speak on

### THE EXTENT, METHODS AND VALUE OF SUPERVISION IN A SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS.

With no time to expend in preliminaries, quite satisfied that every method of supervision likely to influence our choices is some where in operation among our schools, and anxious to obtain definite direction by the study of existing facts, I plunge into my subject by asking, Where do we find our best schools?

No one will hesitate what to reply. There is not a person in the land familiar with educational literature and progress who is not ready, on the instant, to point out the favored localities. St. Louis, Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Oswego, Syracuse, New York, Providence, Springfield, Boston, and other cities and towns no less conspicuous in this connection, bear away the palm. And their schools are excellent, not in a comparative sense alone, but for possession of all the elements of intrinsic worth.

I ask now a second question: What is the secret of this preëminence? There is no secret in the case. The cause is as open as the day, for its admirable effects can be traceable to nothing else. The orderly method, the intelligent distribution of studies, the high ideal, the devoted purpose, the earnest life, which constitute this preëminence, are attributable to the fact that the local boards having charge of these schools, while reserving to themselves all legislative functions and ultimate authority in the premises, severally employ an execu-

tive officer—a superintendent—to enforce their legislation and manage their schools; who gives to his schools all his time, all his thought, all his culture, and puts his best life into theirs.

We pass now along the descending scale of the schools, from good to poor, and from poor to worse, and how painfully we are saddened as we go, by evidence that they are what they are—few good as they might be, the most wretchedly defective—for want of skilled and thorough supervision. How profoundly we are impressed by the fact that such supervision would work transforming wonders all along! And when we come, at last, to the schools in the poorer class of villages and the sparsely-settled rural districts, which maintain their pitiable existence with virtually no supervision at all, how keenly we appreciate that, meagre as may be their support, miserable their appurtenances, and inexperienced their teachers, if there were only a master mind to come authoritatively in among them, whose sole occupation it should be to counsel, direct and guide them, their slender resources would be more providently utilized, their squandered energies intelligently directed, their mistakes prevented, their aims clarified and uplifted, and their condition, from being worse than equivocal, made usefully effective and honorable.

There is another persuasive line of testimony to the same effect. It is supplied by those who have been personally conversant with the actual steps through which notable renovations have been accomplished, by means of the activities of capable and efficient superintendents.

Says Hon. Mr. NORTHROP, now State Commissioner of Connecticut, in a report made when Agent of the State of Massachusetts, of the results of appointing a superintendent over the schools of the City of Springfield in this state: "Before he entered upon his new duties, I visited nearly all the schools of the city. The aspect of many of them was most forbidding. . . . I have recently visited again the schools of Springfield, devoting an entire day and part of a second to this duty. During these two years, I find evidence of the most striking and remarkable progress I have ever observed in the schools of any city within the same brief period. I concur fully in the strong language of the honored chairman of the school committee: "The improvement in our schools for the last two years is truly wonderful." During those two years a competent and faithful superintendent has been devoting his whole energies to the improvement of those schools.

Most of the newer Western States have incorporated into their common-school systems provisions for the best kind of supervision, by means of county superintendents. The excellence of the principle, however, is almost universally neutralized, in good part, by the fact that these county officials are often carelessly selected and inadequately paid. But some of them are competent and do their duty; and of the results of oversight by such men in the State of Illinois, Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN, the State Superintendent, eloquently says: "County supervision of schools is the right arm of power in our system. It can not be dispensed with. It has done more than any other one agency to make our schools what they are; and its vitalizing influence is more and more manifest every year. Some of the counties have been almost revolutionized in respect to schools and education during the past year, and the county superin-

tendents have done it. By their influence and efforts, districts have been consolidated, schools have been graded, superior teachers employed, courses of study perfected, controversies settled, school-houses built and furnished, and the whole aspect of educational affairs changed for the better. I know that these things are so, because I have seen them; I have visited many of these good and true men in the scenes of their labors and witnessed the results that I describe. I declare my belief that the destruction or crippling of the county superintendency would be the severest blow that could now fall upon our common schools."

And he says, after four intervening years of further trial, "I give it as my thoroughly settled and growing conviction—and not as mine only, but as the conviction, likewise, of all intelligent educators and friends of education within my knowledge—that, to vacate the office of county superintendent would be, as it were, to put out the right eye of the free-school system, and to palsy its right arm."

Hon. Mr. JOHNSON, State Superintendent of Maine, whose energy procured the creation of the office of county superintendent, a few years ago, in that state, —but under disabilities that vitally crippled its effectiveness,—says, after a three years' trial, "It was a success. Educators in Maine are agreed upon this point. The following benefits have resulted from this new agency. 1st. An increased interest among the people in relation to education. 2d. Systematic efforts on the part of educators and school officers. 3d. An improvement in the scholarship of teachers and in the quality of their instruction. 4th. More intelligent supervision on the part of town committees. 5th. A quick appreciation and promotion of those who are likely to prove our best teachers. 6th. An increase, indirectly, of the average attendance of scholars."

I might add to these citations the emphatic testimony of many town and city school-committees to the admirable changes effected in the condition of their schools consequent on the substitution of oversight by a superintendent for the old method of oversight by the committee themselves. But I must forbear.

Now here is a range of testimony of the choicest kind. Mere appearances, however, might be deceitful. But I know of nothing which so justly enkindles enthusiastic conviction in behalf of a practical agency as to see it working out its noble reformatations and transformations day by day, visibly introducing fertile life where all, perhaps, was waste and barrenness, and stirring the stagnant pulses of decay into the vigorous heartbeats of renascent life.

A third question is now in point. What conclusions do we arrive at from this scrutiny of the condition of our American schools? It is that, of all instrumentalities essential to the efficiency and success of schools, none is so important as that of intelligent, thorough, faithful oversight; that the dependence which our communities are so generally placing on local committees is, in view of the conditions under which they usually act, both illusory and damaging in the extreme; that the crying evil of the great mass of American schools is that they are ruinously neglected by their appointed guardians. And this farther appears,—give the point good heed, I pray you!—that the only possible remedy as a matter of fact, while it is incomparably the best remedy as a matter of principle, is to parcel out the schools every where on a basis that will leave

each group of a size capable of being faithfully supervised by one competent expert, supposing him to devote to the work all his time and energies, and over each group to put such a person in charge.

This is expressed in a crude generality, for I have not yet arrived at the point for more specific details. I have aimed, thus far, only to determine clearly and conclusively what kind of supervision is essential to produce the best of schools; because, when that has been accomplished, I have established the grand central principle on which every thing else depends. Every other consideration can be only incidental and subsidiary; a mere question of means and policy; a question what machinery it is best to set in motion to make this mighty principle effective for the most perfect results.

Before I make application of these conclusions, let me fortify my argument by a consideration of the reasons why supervision by local committees is inadequate to meet the necessities of the schools; and why, on the contrary, supervision by one efficient person in each locality, who devotes to the duty all his time, has the prestige of thorough efficiency and entire success.

What are the circumstances? The local school-boards in the several states, who, by law, have charge of the schools and, where there is no superintendent, manage them, are chosen, like other local officers, from the body of the people, without any condition precedent as to fitness for the duties which will devolve on them, or surety that they can command leisure enough to give opportunity to perform those duties. They are, therefore, made up of men of various occupations, who, except in rare instances, are engrossed by their own personal cares. And furthermore, these men are expected to discharge the duties of school committee without pay, or for a pittance insufficient, in most cases, to compensate them for the actual cost of the necessary travel.

We have, then, three prominent facts in reference to the great mass of local committees:

1st. They have no training or preparation for the duties they are to fulfill. 2d. They have only the shreds and trimmings of their time, after attention to their absorbing private avocations, to bestow on those duties. 3d. They are not paid enough to make it worth their while to devote even their leisure to those duties; indeed, if they strive to perform them with any degree of fidelity, they must spend more than they get.

The consequence is that, almost universally, they neglect their duties. The great majority of the schools are seldom or never visited by their committees, and the brief, casual visits made to others have no character, no definite, intelligent purpose, and might just as well be omitted altogether.

And now I ask, What is this business of popular education, which our communities are expecting men to transact under such conditions? Is it a simple matter, to be comprehended at a glance, and capable of being dashed off lightly by any chance person you may meet, working from only the surface of his mind? If neglected, is the consequent damages of slight importance? Will schools run along very well without inspection, like a clock when it has been once wound up and set agoing? Is the work to be wrought out in them easily understood and easily performed?

Men are apt to take things just as they find them, and measure the range of their opportunities and the scope of their possibilities by what they see them

to be accomplishing as a matter of every-day, prosy fact. And so it is that, because the schools which most men know anything about have been pettily formal in their processes and narrow in their aims,—their idea of discipline confined to scaring the boys and girls into sitting still, and of intellectual work to the study and recitation of lessons out of text-books,—these men have an ideal about schools that is not very elevated and makes no great demands. But in a discussion like this, we must lift the subject up into the sphere of its actual greatness. And as, from such heights of contemplation, I speak of *THE TRUE METHODS OF EDUCATING A PEOPLE*, the momentous interests of both time and eternity gather into view before me in the majesty of their sublime proportions, as I utter these words, for there is not a vital fact in human destiny, beyond or this side the grave, which their significance does not reach and touch, to gild it with glory or to blacken it with shame. The ultimate aim of a system of popular education, inspiring to create it and justifying the imposition of pecuniary burdens to maintain it, is to perpetuate free institutions with all the priceless blessings they dispense, by training up the successive generations of the nation's youth into a manhood and womanhood that shall be enlightened enough to appreciate the safeguards of liberty, and virtuous enough to maintain them. The forces of the mind, then, in the possession of those youth, as they conspire to increase the stores of intellectual knowledge, and to invigorate and clarify their judgments, and the forces of their spirits as they conspire to mould and determine their characters, are the objects of this training—this process of popular education! May the oversight of such a work be safely intrusted to experts, who can devote to it only the odds and ends of their time and thought? We are accustomed to speak of the vocation of the teacher as one that involves a sacred responsibility, and demands the highest elements of mind and character. How much more exacting is the position of a supervisor, who is the teacher of teachers; whose part it is to bear them as well as their schools on his mind and in his heart; whose part it is to understand their trials and difficulties, and with friendly sympathy aid in removing them; to detect and disclose to them their points of weakness; to recall them out of mistaken paths; to cheer them in their misgivings and discouragements; methodize their labors; inspire them with noble incentives; rouse them to the exercise of all-conquering energy. And on the side of the children, he must understand their capacities, tastes and dispositions; be able, that he may do them justice, to throw himself into their states of feeling; take advantage of all circumstances which will enable him impressively to warn them against error and to encourage them in duty; and when he tests their scholarship and progress, be able to draw them out in a free and full revelation of all they know, because they trust and understand as well as respect him. And is this a programme of action to be accomplished by an expert, giving to it only the odds and ends of his time and thought? Nay, when one enters thoroughly into it, faithfully to meet its requisitions, it draws upon the inmost vitalities of his being; puts his manhood upon its most vigorous mettle; tasks his utmost resources of mind and of soul, his observation, intelligence, judgment, constructive power, taste, will, prudence, disinterestedness, charity, truth;—his energies working on the top strain of an enthusiasm that leads him, as it were, to pour out his

very heart's blood into the channels of duty, and make the throbs of his pulses the time-beats of his victorious energy!

Practical education is both a science and an art. As a science it demands acquaintance with the laws of mental development and action, the aims of study, the relative values of the several branches of study in regard to usefulness and importance, the comparative worth of diverse methods of instruction, the influence of the condition of the body over the activities of the mind, the laws of ventilation, the fitness of competing text-books, the accessories essential to thorough, intelligent instruction. As an art, it includes possession of the aptitudes, and a knowledge of the construction of the instrumentalities, through which the principles of its science may be successfully carried out in the practical work of the school-room. And this implies, in order that one may be properly furnished for the duty of a supervisor of schools, an exhaustive acquaintance with the literature of education, filled at present with the fruits of the intense activity of master minds to improve its principles and its methods, and the sagacity to actualize its golden suggestions in the operations of the schools. And are vital requisitions like these to be expected of those who have other avocations to engross them, who are to receive little or no compensation, and who have had no previous training? Oh, when we reflect with what apparently utter recklessness the sacred claims of such momentous interests are widely disregarded and set at naught, we are almost led to despair of better things! It is common with educators, when urging the substitution of supervision by superintendents for that by the local committees, to direct the attention of the people to the analogy of all coöperative occupations of importance, such as railroads, cotton mills, banks, insurance companies, and the like; and to argue that, as in such undertakings it would be the height of folly for the directors to distribute the duties among themselves, dispensing with an experienced, responsible head, so is it to insure failure in the work of education to rely for efficient supervision on an unpaid school-board, without the aid of a superintendent. This is a pointed and timely home thrust. There is not a manufacturing corporation or a machine-shop in the land which does not owe its prosperity to the oversight of one competent, well-paid, responsible head. And here are the people acting on the principle that the enginery of popular education, the grandest, mightiest and most important coöperative machine the world ever saw, whose products involve the culture and happiness of individuals, the order and elevation of society, and the security of free institutions, expected to be run successfully by the voluntary enterprise of men having other occupations, and consequently only scraps of their time to bestow upon it! When I look such humiliating facts square in the face, I begin to doubt the existence of any belief in the masses that education is an indispensable conservative force in the Republic; I begin to think that the wide-spread and vigorous protestations to that effect are vapory nothings; an airy play of hollow rhetorical bubbles; having no more relation to deep-seated convictions on the subject than the snap of a boy's fire-cracker on the Fourth of July has to patriotism, or the thud of Gilmore's cannon has to music!

The question is some times asked, If the supervision of a system of schools

be transacted by the members of a school-board, and the time they devote to it equal the whole time of one man, is not that as well, while the cost of a superintendent will thus be saved? I answer emphatically, No; it is not as well; and the reason to be given explains why it is specially important that the schools should be placed under the care of superintendents, who will devote to them all their time. It is not the *quantity* of supervision that is of value so much as the *quality* of it. The committee-man who gives to the schools only the shreds and parings of his time, because the most of it is engrossed by his private affairs, will, by the same token, give to them only the shreds and parings of his thought. The substantive powers of his mind will be occupied elsewhere. As a consequence, he bears with him no intelligent conception of the deep realities of the work of education. His mind does not reach down to the play of its vital forces. He does not know, therefore, how to pass judgment on a school, and whether its condition be commendable or otherwise. He may not be satisfied with it—but the causes of his dissatisfaction may be trivial and insignificant, while defects of real gravity may escape him altogether. And in regard to the imperfections he may notice, he may be entirely unable to suggest the means of improvement. Reduplicate, therefore, the supervision of such a man many fold, let its visits of inspection equal over and over again that of one competent person who is occupied wholly with its duties, and after all you will have, as a result, only a record of so many well-intentioned but well-nigh useless endeavors. But now comes along to inspect the school a man possessing the qualifications which have been described as essential to a competent supervisor; his mind a store-house of knowledge on the subject of his duties; his spirit glowing with interest to actualize in the schools of which he has charge his noble ideals; and the very first glance around the room as he enters it, observing the behavior and occupation of the scholars and the engagements and deportment of the teacher, will open out to his keen experience the *morale* of that school. A few moments' attention to the recitations and other work will reveal the quality of the teacher's labors; and it will not be long before he is master of the whole situation; ready to praise, to blame, to counsel, to suggest, to encourage, according as there may be need. And he will leave light and life behind him in larger measure than they existed before. Of far more value, therefore, the services of such an officer to each of a hundred schools which may depend on them, than the services of a dozen of the other class of supervisors if concentrated on a single school. This is a radical and important consideration; for it makes it manifest that the defects to be noticed in supervision by local boards are not attributable solely to neglects which they might remedy by greater attention, but that they arise in good part from their positive unfitness for its duties, and that some other mode of supervision is imperative if we would have the best of schools.

There are other duties pertaining to a supervisor's office in most localities, to which I can merely refer. They are vividly suggested by Hon. Mr. BATEMAN, State Superintendent of Illinois, when he says of some of the county superintendents of that state, "They have visited the schools, visited the parents, held institutes, addressed the people, issued circulars, written for the press, published reports, and mightily awakened and quickened the public mind. By their influence and efforts districts have been consolidated, schools have been



graded, superior teachers employed, courses of study perfected, controversies settled, school-houses built and furnished, and the whole aspect of affairs changed for the better." It is very plain that such services as these are not likely to be rendered, to any great extent, except by men thoroughly accomplished for their work, and making it their sole, devoted occupation.

I have laid my chief subject-matter before you and approach the close of my address. For, as I said in the beginning, when we have determined what kind of supervision is necessary, we have established the grand central principle on which every thing else depends. There remain only incidental questions of means and policy; problems, by what kind of executive machinery the principle shall be practically realized.

From this starting-point, I proceed to ask, What should be the structure of a system of schools in reference to the element of supervision?

There will be no controversy that the limits of the system should be co-terminous with the limits of the civil authority by which it must be established and regulated; any thing short of that would manifestly be fragmentary and incomplete.

Some of the newer Western States, whose systems of education have been framed in accordance with the suggestions of experienced wisdom, offer us models on which we can scarcely improve. There should be,

- 1st. A State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- 2d. County Superintendents of Schools.
- 3d. Town and City Boards of School Committees or Directors.

And this is all the executive machinery that seems to be necessary for the work of supervision in a state.

The state superintendent is the executive head of the system. He is intrusted with the general care and supervision of all the public schools of the state, and is made the official adviser and assistant of county superintendents of schools, through whom he is to communicate his views and instructions to all subordinate school officers, and see that the school-laws are duly understood and carried out.

Next in order come the county superintendents of schools. The county, the territorial limit of the civil subdivisions of government intermediate between the state authorities and the towns, has wisely been adopted as the territorial limit of the school system in the same relations. The county superintendents are required to visit all the schools in their respective counties once a year, and oftener if practicable, noting the methods of instruction, the branches taught, and the discipline, government and general condition of the schools, and to give such directions in the science, art and methods of teaching as they may deem expedient and necessary. They are made the official advisers and assistants of all the subordinate school-officers and teachers of their respective counties, and are required faithfully to carry out the advice and instructions of the state superintendent. Furthermore,—a most important provision,—the county superintendent constitutes one of the board of examiners by whom applicants for teacherships are examined and approved, and his official signature is necessary to validate the certificate through which any teacher can obtain employment in the county.

Of course, provision is made for cities and towns to appoint and maintain superintendents of their own, whenever they may choose to do so.

I have accepted the county as the territorial limit of the superintendency through which thorough supervision is to be assured to every school in the state, for several reasons. One is, that is the designation of a civil division already existing in every state, and therefore prevents the necessity of establishing and defining new boundaries. Again, it tends to associate the cause of education with the ordinary operations of the government of the state, as one of the legitimate objects of its care. And, third, all the states which have already provided for this kind of supervision have done so by means of county lines.

At the same time, it is instantly apparent that county lines by no means express definitely the limits of a superintendent's efficiency. For counties vary greatly in size in some of the states, and vary greatly in all the states in the amount of their population; and there is no accommodating flexibility in a superintendent's duties or power of reduplication in his capacities which will enable him to magnify himself into proportions corresponding with whatever demand may be made on him. On the contrary, the number of schools in several counties of almost every state is far beyond the ability of one man to bestow on them the amount of care which the right kind of inspection demands. Massachusetts, for instance, has only fourteen counties, while her population is a million and a half. Subtract the schools of the cities and towns supervised by their own superintendents, and there would still remain far too many for most of the county superintendents, supposing such officers to be created, to oversee with full advantage. Indeed, the usefulness of many existing city superintendents is greatly abridged,—in some important regards, is well-nigh nullified,—by the unmanageable size of their superintendencies. If they do some justice to all their schools, they can do vital good to few or none.

But both in county and city it is easy to remedy this evil by means of subdivisions, or by the appointment of assistants. I have thought the Boston plan, whereby the principal of each grammar school, as assistant to the general superintendent, supervises his own school and the primaries which are its affluents, is an admirable arrangement, where a full graded system of schools exists.

And now, in regard to these county superintendents who are to accomplish so much for the neglected schools—is their appointment a matter of special interest only to the localities to be immediately affected by it? May the large cities and towns, which have their own excellent school systems, their own superintendents, their own admirable schools, look on the struggle of educators to secure equally good supervision for the schools every where with indifference, satisfied because their local interests are fully served? In reply to these questions let me interpose an earnest word.

When we look abroad among our prosperous cities and towns, we find them actuated by an amicable rivalry to outdo each other in provisions for their schools. They employ superintendents; they improve their school systems; they build fine school-houses—they supply them liberally with all the necessary appurtenances. They love to boast, when dedicating one of these splendid edifices, that it is one of the very best structures of the kind in the state, and it lifts its noble proportions proudly in the air, as if in mockery of the

humble, poorly-furnished school-houses of the rural districts; seeming to say, "It is a sorry sort of education the farmers' sons and daughters are getting within your weather-beaten, leaky walls! But I offer admirable opportunities to those who gather beneath my roof. Well, I'm sorry for you and yours, but these distinctions inevitably prevail!"

Now what are the momentous realities moving on in dominating power beneath the surface-play of these distinctions? There is Boston, for instance, with its splendid schools. Its growth is enormous. Street after street is added to its area every month. Well do I remember having often crossed, in my youth, the lonely, almost houseless "neck," as it was called,—now the magnificent avenue of Washington Street,—when the tide-water came up over the waste salt-marshes of the very spot on which we are now gathered; and this spot is now in the very heart of the city. Whence has come the increment to her population to occupy all these new houses? Is it from her own growth and overflow? By no means. Is it by the aid of immigration from foreign lands? Only in part. Scrutinize the ownership of the names in her directory, and you will find that almost every town in all the state has sent in its quota. Yes, a portion of the boys and girls who are now picking up the crumbs of an education in any one of the forty-seven towns of Massachusetts which can maintain schools only six months of the year or less—often wretchedly poor ones at that—are many of them to become citizens of Boston, which gives to its own children upwards of ten months' schooling each year, of the very best quality. Aye, more. Some of the boys and girls, because of the privations they have been the victims of in the place of their nativity, are to swell the ranks of the dangerous classes of this metropolis; and it will have to pay for their trial in its courts and confinement in its jails far more than the whole cost of the education of as many of its own children in its splendid school-houses. Precisely the same thing is going on the whole country over. The tendency of the times is to aggregation in compact communities. Many of the children reared in the country find the homes of their maturity, for weal or for woe, in the cities and larger towns. And even where it is not so, where the agricultural districts hold their own in population, an interchange of individuals between the two sections is ceaselessly in progress, which sets at naught the ideas of those who regard our municipalities as so many independent communities, whose enterprise in reference to their own institutions will enure exclusively to their own profit. All sections of the country are closely bound together as one—the poorer with the richer—the highly-cultured with the neglected. Divided as to certain local rights and immunities, they are one as to all great interests and results. So it is that Boston has a direct, vital concern in the work that is going on in every school-house in the state; and it can not afford, for its own security, that there should any where be poor schools. It can not afford it; and every splendid school-edifice within its borders is in one sense a shame and a reproach to it, so long as defects remain in the commonwealth's system of supervision which its potent influence might aid to remove, and school privileges are any where denied which its ample wealth ought, in part, to supply.

There is a word more to be spoken on this point. Boston has a direct, vital interest, not only in the increment to its own population to be expected from

the agricultural districts, but in those who are to remain at home, to constitute the hardy yeomanry of the land. The rural towns supply a portion of the voters to elect the rulers of the state; of legislators, to enact its laws; aye, and should invasion or insurrection plunge us into the horrors of conflict, from their midst is to come a portion of the brave, patriotic soldiery to fight our battles and protect our homes. And can Boston, or any other city in the commonwealth, afford to abandon the children of the rural districts to the deprivation of a full and thorough education?

This reasoning which I have applied to a specific instance is of general application. The same laws of social intercourse, intercommunication and business which make the schools of Provincetown on the end of the Cape and of Williamstown in the corner of Berkshire important to Boston, make the schools of the poorest or most distant towns in Ohio of importance to Cleveland and Cincinnati, and the schools of the poorest or most distant towns in Illinois important to Peoria and Chicago. Then when we plead for better systems of supervision which shall improve the schools, may our voices find echoes by every hearthstone and in every counting-room of our prosperous and wealthy cities, the ties of brotherhood be cordially acknowledged, and the sacrifices of duty be met with a cheerful alacrity.

And now I say, by all means, let the superintendents be well paid, and for security of this, paid by the state. There comes a wail of anguish from every annual report of most state superintendents where the system of county superintendency exists, because the power of the glorious system is well-nigh paralyzed by the inadequate provisions for the remuneration of these officers. The eminent ability, large culture and experience, lofty character and indomitable energy needful to such an officer can not be had for the mere asking. They command their price. If the state will not secure them by paying what they are worth to it, other walks of business will; and the state must content itself with third-rate men, to whom the pittance it grants will be a very godsend, because they can get nothing else to do! There is abundant shame in such a condition of affairs; and when interests so momentous are at stake, let not the people suffer the cause of education to go limping along in crippled impotence, because they are not willing to be just!

There remains to be considered only one other class of school-officers essential to a system of supervision. These are the local boards of control, called school committees in Massachusetts, school visitors in Connecticut, school directors in Illinois. However named in the several states, these bodies are very similar in their constitution, powers and duties, and directly represent the opinions and will of the people themselves in reference to the maintenance and condition of their schools. The existence of such an agency is all-important. For it would be idle to attempt to force improvements on the schools from without, in defiance of an antagonistic public opinion. Progress, to be enduring, must be supported by public opinion as its impulse and guaranty. Let the schools, then, be immediately represented and controlled by those who will be the exponents of the prevailing sentiment in regard to them. Let the prerogatives of the local committees be interfered with and their powers abridged by the institution of a county superintendency, only so far as is necessary to be-

stow on the latter the needful range of duty and responsibility, and prevent a conflict of jurisdiction.

Twenty states have incorporated a county superintendency, that noble institution—"that right arm of power to a school system"—in their organic structure. The new states, as fast as formed, invariably follow this course. Why do not all the old states wheel into line and modify their school systems accordingly? Why is not my own dear old Massachusetts, so noted for intellectual and philanthropic enterprise, found in the front rank in such a glorious reform? I am not disposed to excuse her dereliction. I will utter no words of vindication or apology which would not represent my convictions. I believe it is simply a tincture of the "Old Adam" which detains her. I believe that the fact that a few prerogatives must be surrendered by the school committees, and some now exclusive powers coördinated or abridged, explains the whole. HORACE MANN wittily said, in reference to this very subject, "The newer Western States enjoy one great advantage over the people of Massachusetts. They have been exempted from the immense labor of for ever boasting of their ancestors, and so have had more time to devote to their posterity." It is the spirit probed by that sarcasm which blocks the pathway of this reform. It was that same spirit which overthrew the system of county superintendency in Maine, which had been established through the intelligent energy of Mr. JOHNSON, her state superintendent. The people of Maine tried it three years and then abolished it. The project was emasculated of all virility in the first place, so as not to disturb the equanimity of the local powers, and the very weakness it consequently exhibited was made the chief ground of the attacks which finally prevailed against it. But Brother JOHNSON is not easily intimidated or rebuffed. He will strike again in due time; strike for a law whose provisions shall be in keeping with the sovereign claims of the cause it would benefit, and clothe the officers it creates with power commensurate with responsibility; and the people of Maine, regenerated in opinion and feeling by that time, through his irresistible appeals and those of his coadjutors, will enact and accept it once and for ever.

Yes; exorcise the jealous spirit I refer to, and with its flight all the influence of the arguments it employs against this indispensable measure will fall to the ground. For their strength is to be found only in the strength of the unintelligent prejudices to which they appeal. Here, for instance—to touch, in conclusion, on one of those arguments—is the charge that the establishment of a county superintendency is anti-democratic—that it creates a one-man power, which is offensive to democratic instincts and likely to be abused. A "one-man power"? Is not the power of the governor a one-man power? Is not the power of a judge upon the bench a one-man power? Is not the power of the president a one-man power? Is not a strong, competent executive arm in any connection the arm of a one-man power? And what harm? Enthroned behind it, all the while, is the authority which conferred, and which can at any moment annul it. Let every true, large-hearted American scorn to rest contented with public institutions whose defects are fraught with disaster, because he revolts from the only form of power which can remedy those defects, as being offensive to his democratic instincts. I was lately reading an account of the people of Alaska. The writer described a tribe

of natives living on the coast above Sitka, whose houses are holes, from ten to twelve feet square, dug in the earth and covered with a roof of bushes and skins. And in such huts whole families will burrow all winter long, amidst the unventilated foulness generated by the cooking of their food and the exhalations of their own breaths and bodies. When the Russian government owned Alaska, adds the writer, it forced these people to use the baths it provided once a week; but since the American government has owned it, they have been free to be as nasty as they please.

When I read this narrative, the argument under consideration came forcibly to mind; and I bethought me, How humiliating is that conception of free institutions as opposed to imperialism, which insists that they confer on the people the prerogative of being as ignorant and as degraded as they please!

Fellow Superintendents, if I have greatly magnified the office we hold—if I have lauded it as the corner-stone of a perfect school system, none will justify my position sooner than yourselves. None will sooner assert that I have not exaggerated its opportunities, its demands, or its responsibility. May we be so faithful to our duty in our several spheres of action, that its priceless fruits shall speak for our office louder than any words of our mouths, and commend it to the place and the confidence it claims!

#### DISCUSSION.

The discussion following Mr. HARRINGTON's paper was introduced by *Mr. Wm. T. Harris*, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.

In early days, when the schools of St. Louis were smaller, the superintendent could visit all of them. This can not be done now, however. The problem of supervision becomes difficult—more so in the growing cities of the West, where the boards of education do less visiting than in the Eastern cities. The principals are now required to visit the rooms of lower grade in their schools to equalize and improve their character. This system has greatly benefited the schools. The principal should teach about one-fifth of his time, so that he shall see the work of instruction from the practical point of view of the teacher. We need the supervision of both the principal and the superintendent.

*Hon. J. P. Wickersham*, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Pa. We must have supervision. Local school-boards are not competent. Principals are not fully competent. Hence, we must have superintendents. Exceptions are possible where local boards and principals of schools can do good work; but in general they can not do it well. Where teachers are to be examined and certificated, pupils promoted and graded, and the whole system of schools made most effective, there must be superintendence. The human body, with its members and muscles, and a head to govern, symbolizes all human organizations. Railroads, iron-foundries, factories, all need and must have a head. They fail without it. County supervision was established in Pennsylvania in 1854, at a cost of \$33,000. The system has been extended, and last year \$125,000 was paid for this purpose. The state and county superintendence are made as perfect as possible, and the system will soon be extended to townships. Where there are twenty-five schools there should be a superintendent. The schools of Pennsylvania flourish because they are kept close to the hearts of the people.

There is a vital relation between the state, county and borough superintendence. This system has elevated the character of the schools of Pennsylvania, where \$10,000,000 will this year be spent for education.

*Rev. Charles Hammond*, Monson, Mass. The lecturer and speakers have given Massachusetts some hard hits. Massachusetts is said to have done some good things; but having no county superintendence, she is ranked with Alaska. If there is any system of American schools, it has originated in New England. A Western man lately undertook to lecture the President of Yale College on the necessity of progress, referring to the schools of Missouri and St. Louis. President PORTER said to Mr. BROWN, "If you have time next spring, we will put you on the examining committee, and you may see that some progress has been made here." We have made progress without county superintendents. In the West there are no towns such as exist in New England. Massachusetts should not be berated because she lacks one feature. In California the system of county superintendents may be necessary. There a town is as large as one of our counties, and a county as large as one of our states. The schools of this state could hardly be improved. Country boys and teachers are as good, on an average, as city pupils and teachers. We do not rate teachers by salaries, nor by the houses in which they teach.

*Mr. A. McMillan*, Superintendent of Schools, Utica, N. Y., thought there was truth in all that had been said. It is time that it shall be understood that what applies to one state may not apply to another. We here seek to know what has worked well in different places, that we may each adopt improvements in our own systems. In New York there is need of supervision from the primary school to the state system. The principal must supervise the teachers and report to the county superintendent. Local boards in Massachusetts are qualified to supervise. Not so in the newer states. The thing for New York is a series of superintendents, state, county, and city, a regular gradation.

*Mr. A. Armstrong*, Council Bluffs, Iowa. The great deficiency is a want of supervision in the district school. Cities are well provided for, but the country districts languish. Even in Massachusetts he had heard of localities where this is true. In the new settlements of the West, the sparsely-settled neighborhoods need the same perfection of inspection as the city, county, or state.

*Hon. Newton Bateman*, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, agreed with the paper as far as he heard it. He eulogized highly what Massachusetts had done for the cause of education. We can not pay the debt we owe her. But for the Western States the county superintendence is indispensable. Suggestions go from state authorities directly through county and town superintendents to the schools. In this way accurate and reliable statistics can be gathered. The effect of the system is to unify and vitalize the schools. In Illinois there are one hundred and two county superintendents, and they are an index of the schools. If the office is worthily filled, the schools show it. One county had a deficient superintendent. The people became dissatisfied and would have abolished the office. But a new man was appointed, thoroughly competent and active. He visited the townships and set forth the characteristics of a good school and good teachers and their usefulness to the people. Now

nineteen-twentieths of the voters there would approve the system. Opposition arises only from inefficient superintendents in that state. He adopts the idea of Mr. HARRIS, that to outside supervision should be added that of the principals. Illinois needs township superintendence. Her system is better than the work done under it. There is danger of getting the power too far from the heart of the people. He once favored the appointment of superintendents by the governor, but now he is averse to it.

*Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of State Board of Education, Massachusetts.* What salaries are paid to the county superintendents? What is their relation to cities having systems of their own?

*Mr. Bateman.* The salaries average about \$1000. They have no authority except to ask for certain statistics.

*Mr. White, of Mass.* I like to hear the old State of Massachusetts criticised. It does us good by stirring us up, and we are used to it. Massachusetts has some 300 towns. Illinois has 102 counties. County superintendents are needed in that state as we need town superintendents. The polity of the two states is not identical. In this commonwealth schools are supported by towns and town tax. The towns are Massachusetts. Next to schools they are the best educators of the people. Towns do their own work in their own way, often slowly. The central power would like to lift them up, but they have come up themselves. The discussions in the town of Amherst on the system of schools were as beneficial as ten years of public schools. I would not interfere with these towns, and I doubt the necessity for county superintendents. Men of suitable character can not be obtained in Massachusetts for \$1200 per annum. I was in New York when county supervisors were introduced. The scheme was lost by becoming mixed up with politics. Such misfortune has not befallen this commonwealth.

We have, in our state, graduates of state normal schools, ladies, who take places as school committee and superintendent and fill them with fidelity and success. We obtain information from the towns sufficiently accurate and prompt by means of the annual school reports. With five assistants, the Secretary of the State Board of Education could communicate with every school in the state as well as it can be done in any western state with its system. The relation of cities to the country districts is an important one. The country is being depopulated, but there is a sturdy and substantial good sense in the rural districts of this commonwealth which perpetuates the virtues of the fathers.

*Hon. J. L. Pickard, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago.* It depends more upon the man than upon the system. A good man with a poor system is better than a good system with a poor man. The limit of supervision is with the people and the schools supervised. The supervision ought not to seem supervision. The work must be done mostly by others. A system of schools is a growth. The superintendent can not be put into a niche made for him. He must make his own place. His ideas must imperceptibly permeate all below him. But he must not crush out individuality in his subordinates, or he defeats himself. No one can say, "Teach each subject in this way. I know all



there is to be known about good teaching." Let us have the best from all below us.

*Mr. Harrington* arose to explain. In his manuscript he has explained what he omitted in reading. The word county, as he has explained, does not define the extent of the superintendent's work.

*Mr. A. Parish*, Superintendent of Schools, New Haven, Ct. I like to hear our friends from the West, though we hear only what we may learn from their reports. This discussion has not touched the work of the superintendent—what he is to do. He explained the organization of teachers' institutes as a county agency better than county supervisors. Here the state agent influences both teachers and parents. This method, carried out further by meetings of the people, is best for improving New-England schools. Such was the case in *HORACE MANN's* time.

## SECOND DAY.

### WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

Department was called to order by the President.

On motion of *Mr. AVERY*, of Ohio, a committee to nominate officers for the next year was appointed, consisting of Messrs. *AVERY*, of Ohio, *PARISH*, of Ct., and *CREERY*, of Md.

*W. T. Harris*, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, read a paper on

#### THE EARLY WITHDRAWAL OF PUPILS FROM SCHOOL: ITS CAUSES AND ITS REMEDIES.

Of all subjects of investigation that claim the attention of the active laborers in Physical Science at the present day, that of Meteorology holds the foremost rank. The next great victories over nature are likely to be obtained in this province, and the benefits to be derived from an application of discoveries in this realm will far transcend any thing hitherto achieved. The government of the climate or the complete avoidance of its inconveniences, the development of a completely scientific agriculture, are foremost and obvious advantages resulting from this application.

But there are more remote and far more valuable fruits. The final conquest of the sea, which will be effected by this, is not of so great moment as the conquest of the air as a means of transit. The age of steam has created for us a new type of man, and a new spiritual world of humanity has been the result. The age of aerial navigation will be still more potent, in developing for us a new era of spiritual growth.

Looked at from a scientific standpoint, Meteorology differs from other natural sciences in the fact that its object is a kind of synthesis of all the other depart-

ments. The ends of the special threads of the sciences of nature come together into one knot, and this knot is the problem for the solution of meteorology. Optics discovering the lines in the spectrum; Astronomy discovering the flames and spots in the sun; Geology noting the causes of earthquakes; Mineralogy noting the laws of crystallization—all these find themselves in a vortical whirl, swiftly drawing near a centre wherein they are to form one process of action and interaction.

The profounder thinkers in natural science announce for us the doctrine of the correlation of forces, wherein light, heat, electricity, magnetism and organization rise from the abyss of gravitation and ceaselessly vanish into each other, weaving the web of creation. What FAUST heard in the depths of his cell when the world-spirit came before him blinding his vision, *that we are slowly realizing in science: it is this subtle, correlated process, deep down in nature, thought out by the natural philosopher and traced out by the meteorologist, that manifests the "Erd Geist."*

"At the roaring loom of Time I ply,  
And weave the living garment of the Deity."

What emotions arise in the mind of the astronomer as he looks out upon the universe of stars, and sees them "slowly gathering into one flock," impelled by the resistless might of gravity! Similar must be the feelings of the positivist who sees the special sciences blending in one dissolving view—an intimation of one all-pervading impulse to unity. All things return to the centre whence they originated.

But to pursue this thought into the abyss of nature is not edifying. The most ancient nations looked as we do upon the spectacle of nature: a vast process of creation and destruction of individual forms—the perpetual losing of individuality. The worship of ADONIS—the pitiable wailing and lamentation over individuality that is born only to die—was wide-spread, and became the basis of the "mysteries" of the Greeks and Romans, and of the rites of our secret societies in modern times. Man saw all natural forms rise and decay, impelled by a negative, destroying might, and he shuddered at the thought of his own destiny. The deep sadness, the inward pain at the thought of dissolution has made man more and more internal, more and more it has caused him to build up, out of the substance of his thought, a spiritual dwelling of his own, "far removed from birth and decay." This imperishable world of spirit—the joint product of the earnestness, the suffering, the sweat of blood, the wrestling prayers of the human race—is the complex of the institutions of civilization. Nearer to man by far than the physical world around him it stands to each human soul. For it is by its mediation alone that the material world shall be used and enjoyed, or the cup of sorrow tasted at its hand. If you but think of it, you shall not put forth your hand to take aught—whether it be of the nature of food, clothing, or shelter—unless with the good-will and consent of human society. For in all your actions you shall presuppose continually the laws of property and possession. These laws are the acts of recognition on the part of society in anticipation of the individual; society stands waiting for him, and insists persistently on this point of etiquette—"You, particular individual, shall take what you need only in the form of property (*i.e.*, universalized goods and chattels), and thus shall recognize me (society) as your ALTER IDEM, and

through such recognition shall elevate *yourself* to a *universal existence*—that is to say, to a spiritual existence.” Therefore it is that man, at his advent, finds not only his presupposition in the family, but he finds it still more in civil society and the state. He can not make his exit, nor can the earth hide him, without the same recognition on the part of society: the formal registration, or the still more formal sitting of the coroner’s jury.

Therefore it is that we speak of man’s spiritual dwelling—*civilization*, with its mansions of special institutions, *the family, society, the state, religion*—as a more direct and immediate existence to the individual than mere physical nature; for it is on all hands the instrument through which the latter is seized and appropriated by him. Physical nature must first be universalized—made property through the impression of the spiritual stamp upon it—before it can be used by the individual. Like the current coin, it must first receive the stamp of society before it can lawfully circulate, *i.e.*, be used by the individuals of the community. Even the general elements shall not be enjoyed except through the same mediation. The individual man shall not walk in the street, breathe the common air, be warmed by the sun, or fanned by the wind, unless society licenses him; with more or less formality, to live within its precincts.

Our thoughts, at the contemplation of the science of meteorology, with its cosmical interaction of correlated forces, recur, as we look upon the vast web of conventionalities and formal usages organized into institutions under the aggregate name of *civilization*. Here at last we have found a *one*, a *unity*, for which, *in* which, and *through* which, all individuals exist and come to the fruition of their being.

It is the investigation of this wonderful process that gives rise to *social science*, the foremost spiritual science of the day, just as meteorology is the foremost physical science. Like the latter, too, it comprehends in its extent the functions of a myriad of minor instrumentalities. These latter depend upon the general science for their explanation; for the central process contains the moving principle in its entirety. It was ARISTOTLE who first taught the scientific thinker to trace the fragmentary provinces of a system back to the central moving principle; by its means are to be explained the others; they are only its accidents—in its evolution it produces them.

In studying the phenomena of human life from the broad point of view of social science, we find the definitions and limits of education, as well as of political economy and the allied sciences. Social and political science should investigate the essence of civilization, its laws of growth and decay, and preservation. The evolution of national ideas, their relation to previous and contemporary national ideas, and their limits which doom them to yield their place in the world of actuality—the study of these national ideas is the necessary preliminary to intelligent insight into the growth of history. The natural limitations, such as territory, climate and surroundings, are to be studied for the temporal element—the brick and mortar with which the architect-idea is to make itself visible.

Now, education is that branch of social science which treats of the *preservation* of civilization—not of its evolution, growth, or decay, for the causes of these lie far deeper than in a system of education.

It is necessary to bear this in mind; for every day we hear the would-be so-

cial reformer, or the professional croaker, refer to education things entirely beyond its scope—things which education can do little to make or to mar.

Coming together as we do, representing the educational interests of the nation, it is of especial importance that we discuss our problems in the full light of social science. When we see clearly what education may accomplish, and how far it may extend, and wherein it is supplemented by other social sciences, we shall then be able to see and apply *practical* remedies for pedagogical evils, and shall not waste our time in portraying ideals that can never be realized. We shall not be annoyed by our differences from other nations or peoples in this or that respect, but shall be able to justify our own methods, while recognizing the merit of other methods for different circumstances.

These considerations lead us to the point of view from which to discuss the present theme—that of the early withdrawal of youth from school.

It is obvious that education has a twofold province when we consider it as the means of preservation of civilization. It includes the initiation into the *practice* of what belongs to civilized man, and secondly, an initiation into the ideas that lie at the basis of that practice; in short, it is an inculcation of forms and conventionalities—moral education; and inculcation of theory—intellectual education.

Inasmuch as, in our nation, we require all to ascend to a participation in government, it is essential that our education embrace not merely the passive side of moral education—the inculcation of forms of practice,—but it must furnish an insight into the necessity of these forms. Where the individual is to find his limit from within, we must see to it that his conviction is cultured so far as to base itself on an insight into the rational necessity of moral action; otherwise, he will substitute caprice and selfishness for ethical motives.

Education takes place through the school, and through other agencies, such as the family, social intercourse, and municipal regulations. Its relative proportion in each of these agencies varies with the nation or country. Where, as in Germany, the family, social and municipal influences are very strong, little is left for the school to do in the way of moral education: the boys and girls are good, and may be safely left pretty much to themselves so far as discipline goes. They will work, each for himself, to learn the appointed task. But in our country all these first-mentioned influences are comparatively weak, and more is left for the school to perform. The school must seize the pupil, and train him by a strict discipline to obedience, before it can do much with him in an intellectual point of view. A lax school allows the weeds of selfishness, indolence and insolence to grow up and choke the fair virtues that spring from self-restraint and renunciation.

It is, therefore, especially important that we, in this country, extend the school-life of the child during the plastic period of his growth. Moral education requires time—far more than theoretical education. Where we must do both—give the child theoretical and practical education,—we should require the maximum of time in school. In one word, our whole education should aim to give the pupil directive power; he is to be called upon (more than is the case in any other nation) for the outlay of directive power. He must therefore be practiced for a long time in self-government, and he must be thoroughly initiated into the social necessity that underlies moral action; he must see princi-

ples. Upon such, and such forms alone, is the combination of man and man based, and this combination is the necessary condition for the ascent of one and all above the life of mere animals.

To the superficial observer, the extraordinary demand made on the individual in our time for directive power is merely transitory, it is only contingent on the newly-settled condition of our country. To a close observer, however, it is apparent that this demand for individuality is one that is likely to increase through all the future. The extraordinary facility of transit and communication—steam, the telegraph, and newspaper, are merely the instruments created by the idea of the age, which desires the existence of an active, thinking being in each human brain. The result is that all people are living on the frontiers of their national life, and are continually acting the part of pioneers. The intensity of this life will increase with the continued growth of intercommunication; the ties of family, and society, and state, are destined to relax in behalf of the ties of humanity—clannishness is to give place to cosmopolitan culture. The function of the school is therefore destined to grow in importance in all nations, and thus it is a legitimate inquiry for educators to make, How can we increase the pupil's time in school?

Again, it is not an indifferent matter to the educator whether the pupil spends the first years of his youth in school, or his later years. In case the first years are devoted to school, more of unconscious practice may be had, and the forms will make a deeper impression; there will be *less* of conscious insight, however. In case the later years are spent in school, self-determining reflection and insight may be acquired, but habits already formed will receive less modification. If we are to choose, in the light of the demands of our civilization, we should say the later education rather than the earlier. But, fortunately, we are not obliged to choose. It happens that early education is of great influence in preventing premature withdrawal from school.

I. IMPORTANCE OF EARLY SCHOOLING.—I shall therefore mention, as one of the causes of such early withdrawal, the neglect of school education until the pupil is advanced into the later period of youth. If he attends school then, he is subject to continual mortification on account of his comparatively low standing with pupils of his own age. He is shut out from competition with those whom he chooses as playmates, and must constantly see himself surpassed by striplings. This cause works powerfully to prevent older youth from getting the education they feel the need of.

For this reason it is felt to be a very important thing to attract pupils to our schools while they are yet quite young. I am of the opinion, however, that in general this matter is not sufficiently attended to. We have in all our states many special conditions that enhance the importance of this early schooling. There is the call for youth to enter the fields of productive industry, at an age closely bordering upon infancy. In our manufacturing population, now growing far more rapidly than any other population, this is a very serious evil. Various devices, such as statute laws requiring a certain number of months per year, or a certain number of days per week, have been tried. Evening schools have been established, libraries and reading-rooms opened; still, the problem is but indifferently solved. Looking at this phase of the subject, and considering

the fact that in such communities the family life at home is mostly pernicious to the child, and his life on the street still more so, I think it necessary to modify the character of our lowest primary schools, allowing the entrance of pupils at the age of four years, and making the exercises less severe, and more entertaining to the pupil. Large changes, looking in the direction of the kindergarten system of FROEBEL, can probably be made to advantage.

Pupils thus received and nurtured at an early age will be at least made to love school, and to form good habits. They will be likely to continue at school to a far greater age than otherwise, for two reasons: first, on account of the fact that, having learned to love school life, their preference will go far to determine the consent of the parents. The child in this country has so much self-assertion that he, as a rule, prevails over the will of his mother; and the two combined — what father can resist? Great power lies in the hands of school managers, therefore, to control school attendance by making the schools attractive to children. The other reason for this effect of early school life upon the continuance of it has been adverted to in speaking of the fact that mortification at disparity of age and advancement deters many from attending school who would do so in later youth, although they had neglected it before.

II. COLLISIONS IN DISCIPLINE.—I would mention, as a second cause of the early withdrawal of youth from school, collisions in discipline. Want of skill on the part of the teacher, arising from imperfect self-control, or from lack of insight into human nature, is the fruitful occasion of this deplorable result. This is a problem difficult of solution for the school manager. The most efficient means I have found is the prompt transfer of the pupil to some other school, by the superintendent. Great delicacy is necessary to prevent the feeling of triumph on the part of the pupil or the parent. But with a proper degree of stress laid on the various phases of the error of the pupil and a few words on the necessity of the teacher's position, one can usually manage to make both pupil and parent feel that a trial in another school is very considerate treatment and worth strong promises of amendment. But the best of this system of transfer is the hold it gives the superintendent on the self-control and general management of his teachers. Teachers who have their mistakes thus corrected are apt to take great pains to avoid them. Unless one can have some check of this kind on school discipline, it is extremely liable to become harsh and produce the results mentioned; many a youth with a bitter temper will leave school before his time, if the teacher's system is not adapted to anneal his temper before attempting forcibly to bend it.

In this connection it is worthy of remark that the system of corporal punishment generally employed is likely to go out of use altogether before the close of the century. Any review of its history will convince one of this. The sense of honor is developed earlier and earlier with each succeeding generation, and corporal punishment should give place to punishments of honor as soon as this sense develops. Honor is the feeling of the recognition of one's essentiality on the part of the community. To be deprived of this recognition is a keen suffering to most American youth above the age to enter school. Suspension from school is a means of punishment based on the sense of honor in pupil and parent, and also on the desire of the latter for the culture of his child. Munici

pal authority in the shape of truant and vagrant regulations must be relied on to supplement a mild school discipline, and special reform schools, in which the spirit of military discipline prevails, will train into mechanical habits of obedience those who are morally too weak for the common school.

III. DEFECTIVE GRADING.—I would mention, as a third cause of early withdrawal, *Defective Grading*. As the second cause mentioned is defective discipline, the third is defective instruction or organization of classes for instruction. In the unclassified schools the pupil necessarily feels that he gets little of the teacher's attention. The teacher divides up his time among his pupils, hearing many classes that contain only one, two or three pupils. His time is so dissipated that he gives only five minutes or so to a recitation. This suffices merely to hear the pupil repeat the words of the text-book. The pupil, on arriving at years of reflection, finding that he gets very little of the teacher's time, and that he really learns only what he gets from his text book unaided, sees no use in continuing his attendance upon school, and therefore leaves school. When we consider the value of the unclassified school as a means of culture to the community, we find it extremely limited, and do not so much lament the decision of the older pupil who leaves for the reason here mentioned. The advantage to him was of a moral and social kind, but very small, theoretically considered. The unclassified school has disappeared from our cities and large villages, but it still exists in the country districts very generally. Whenever the sizes of the schools have been such as to admit of it, a system of classification has been introduced, and the immediate consequences have been: (a) great increase in the length of recitation; (b) far more thoroughness in the discussion of the lesson, sifting the different statements and probing the meaning of the same; (c) great stimulation of the mental activity of the pupil through trial and competition with other members of his class. These three advantages can scarcely be overestimated. They multiply the teacher's power just as organization improves the strength of an army. In the unclassified system the teacher is only a private tutor, and the fewer pupils he has, the better for each and all. In the classified system the proper quota of pupils is a potent instrument in the hands of the teacher, and he uses the whole class to correct and stimulate each one in it. The lesson, as recited and discussed by and before the class, gets all its phases stated, restated and criticised as it never could in the case of a single pupil with a private tutor. The presence of the class arouses to a high pitch of energy the teacher, and each individual in the class is excited by the presence of the teacher and the rest of the class. These circumstances account for the high estimation in which the graded system is every where held. So many good things have a tendency to hide some very serious defects. It is this very system, however, that is so organized as to prove the very greatest of all causes for the early withdrawal from school. To this aspect of graded schools I therefore invite your most earnest attention, while I endeavor to portray its injurious effects and suggest the remedy for them.

The tendency of all classification is to unite pupils of widely-different attainments. Especially is this found in small schools. The consequence is that the lesson is too short for some and too long for others. The best pupils in the class are not tried to the full extent of their ability; they consequently lose in some

degree the discipline which they should gain. The poorest pupils of the class are strained to the utmost. They are dragged, as it were, over the ground without having time to digest it as they should. This develops the result that the overworked pupils are frequently discouraged and drop out of the class, and likely enough out of the school altogether. In large systems of schools where classification is very perfect the evil here spoken of need not occur to a serious degree; but it does so very frequently from the fact that the course of study is laid out in grades (ten, more or less, in number), and all pupils are classified or graded so that each belongs to one of these grades. All the pupils in the grade must be in the same degree of advancement at about the same time. The result is that the school is classified in such a way that there are ten classes, separated by intervals of from five to ten months' work. Then promotion is made from one grade to another at set times, annually or semi-annually. All who pass the examination commence the work of the next grade; all who do not continue until the next examination in the work of the grade through which they have just passed. The effect of this is frightful as a cause of early withdrawal from school. The parent and pupil feel very keenly the time lost. The pupil must have been over much of the work of the year; perhaps nine-tenths, or three-quarters, or perhaps only one-half of it. Yet what he has done entitles him to an advanced position over his fellow pupils of the next class below him. If he returns to the school after being thrust back a year for his lack of less than half a year, he appears in the ranks of a class who were a year's work behind him. He has lost his ambition; he is some time in the class before they come to work difficult enough to arouse him to the exertion of his full energies. Meanwhile he has lost his discipline for hard study, and he is very likely to break down a second time on the work of the year. A second failure for promotion is nearly sure to cause withdrawal from school. The parent has lost faith in the talents of his child, and puts him into business or apprentices him to a trade. The youth has lost his own confidence in himself, and is a stunted intellectual growth for the rest of his life.

Was there any advantage in this kind of grading? How could it otherwise have transpired? In stead of the procrustean bed of grades, the pupils should have been classified into classes of thirty, or less, each. These classes in all large schools would be separated by intervals of about five weeks' work. As often as these classes, any of them, become too small by the withdrawal of pupils, or too large by the assignment to them of new-comers, there should be a new formation of classes. The best pupils of one class are to be sent up to the next, the best from the next below are to be promoted and joined with the pupils remaining. Those not promoted are now united with the best of the class that is five weeks' work behind them. The degradation is scarcely felt. It was rather called, in both cases, a promotion of the best ones, not a degrading of the poorest. It is a process of cutting up the school into classes anew, and as a matter of fact the pupils need not have changed rooms to any very great extent.

A set time for examination and promotion is injurious, just in the ratio of its infrequency. Annual examinations for promotion, and the discontinuance of promotions at other times, is an extremely pernicious system, and occasions early withdrawal from school more than any other cause. It is evident that the



farther advanced the pupil, the more unfavorably will it affect him: and yet, in our schools throughout the country, the system is so arranged that this procrustean device applies more especially to the advanced pupils. In how many of our cities is there promotion to the high school oftener than once per year? What becomes of the pupils who lack one per centum of making the standard required? Are they not sent over the work of the highest grade of the grammar schools again, and thus made to occupy a year in doing what they might do in one-fourth of that time. And do they not leave school at this crisis more than at any other time in the whole course? Are not our high schools arranged in grades or classes just one year apart in their work? And is all this necessary? Not, certainly, where there are pupils enough to make two or more divisions of thirty pupils each. If the pupils from the highest grade of the grammar schools had been classified according to their rank in the examination, the first thirty would have formed the highest division on the high-school work, the next thirty the second division, and so through those who had made a reasonable standard. Then would have come the highest thirty pupils in rank of those not admitted, who should be admitted to a central school and conditioned to five weeks' work on the studies of the first grade of the grammar school, and then examined again; the next thirty to a longer period, and so on. Pupils thrown back five weeks, and then classified with their own fellows who had been unsuccessful, would find the hardship a very trivial one, and would scarcely think of leaving school in disgust.

For schools where the number in any grade fell short of the requisite thirty wherewith to form a new division—of course this plan of subdivision could not be carried out. But so far as the first grade of the grammar school is concerned this would rarely happen, and still less likely would it occur with classes below the highest grade. The principle is clearly this: Not a procrustean bed of grades on which the school is to be stretched so as to reduce the number of grades of advancement to ten, or any other special number; but a thorough classification of all the pupils into classes on a certain quota as a basis, whether this be thirty or twenty-five, or whatever number is considered the best. The endeavor will be to have classes separated by as small an interval as possible. But four or six weeks' work is small enough for all practical purposes. And in order to make this arrangement uniform, the pupils in upper grades, when too few to form classes with the required quota, should be brought together in central schools; and this principle should be applied as far as possible: if the highest grade in the high school consisted of sixty pupils or more, the division of it into two classes would be required.

The results of the arrangement here proposed will work the following good effects:

1. It will enable one to fix a higher per cent. for admission to the high school, and for promotion from class to class.
2. It will bring together into classes pupils who are comparatively near together as respects qualifications.
3. It will render possible the new formation of the divisions by promotion of the best pupils from each division into the next higher, whenever considerable inequality begins to manifest itself in any of the classes or divisions.

4. This continual adjustment will render far more efficient the instruction, the good pupils being very seldom kept back for the poor ones.

5. The whole school system will become elastic and mobile. Like the current of a river, there will be, every where, forward motion—in the middle the current is more rapid, at the sides the current flows more slowly. The work of the grade laid down for a year's study will be accomplished in three or three and a half quarters by the brightest, by the dullest and slowest in five quarters.

6. There will be no temptation to push on a slow pupil, or drag him beyond his powers; no temptation to prompt a pupil to a new grade's work before thoroughly completing what is below him.

7. This system will reduce to a minimum the early withdrawal from school on account of non-promotion.

8. Its economy is a very considerable item, inasmuch as the divisions in the upper grades would be kept continually full by promotion from below.

9. Inasmuch as pupils are continually entering school, and others continually leaving, it is clear that a system of grades nailed to the calendar, and inflexible as the seasons, is not so well adapted to actual emergencies as one wherein the extreme of classification is reached compatible with the established quota for the size of classes.

10. By this plan would be checked a pernicious system of holding back pupils from examination for the high school simply for the purpose of gaining a reputation for the school through the high per cent. of its pupils in the competitive examination.

Doubtless there is a certain degree of thoroughness requisite in the lower branches before the student can profitably take up the studies of the next higher grade. After attaining this per cent., it is possible to continue the pupil drilling over the lower work, in order to secure a certain mechanical thoroughness, so long as to waste much time that might be better expended for the pupil's culture and growth on the higher studies.

It is in these higher studies that the pupil gets most directive power—the most valuable power that the community can obtain from its schools. When a community does not educate its directive intelligence, it is forced to support it at a very exorbitant price. With reason, therefore, it is a matter of concern to a community to prevent, if possible, the early withdrawal of its youth from school.

The causes which I have discussed here are, lack of early schooling, injudicious discipline, bad grading, including the lack of classification and the making of the system too rigid. Other causes, such as the pressure of poverty, or the avarice of parents, or the overdemands of productive industry (as happens in the case of war, where the adults join the army and leave the elder youth to carry on their tasks at home)—these causes and others, such as dissipation or criminal negligence of parents, I pass over, for the reason that they belong to the legislator or to the political economist to consider, and not especially to the educator.

## A D D E N D A .

## OBJECTIONS CONSIDERED IN THE DEBATE THAT FOLLOWED THE READING OF THIS PAPER.

I come next to consider certain objections that are likely to be made. Inasmuch as the conventional forms of activity become also moulds for the formation of opinion on all related subjects, the new scheme is censured for not fulfilling functions entirely dispensed with in the system based upon it. I hear the objection made that this system would cause a collection of the dull and stupid pupils into classes by themselves—a deplorable result. But this is one of the evils which this system is adapted to correct. The fact that the best pupils from below are allowed to rise through the masses above them is surely not likely to prevent the slower pupils, who are their companions, from exerting all their energies, and making considerable progress. The stream of bright pupils from below is inexhaustible; from the primary grades it ascends, continually passing fixed points, or points that move on more slowly. In every class there will be its quota of bright pupils, some leading the class and some just sustaining themselves in it, having recently joined it. But in the old system, all the bright pupils had attained the top of the class, and the dull ones had fallen hopelessly to the bottom, long before the needed reclassification took place.

It has been further objected that this system causes so rapid a change from teacher to teacher, that the very important personal influence of the teacher is materially impaired. But under this system in the higher grades the pupil would hardly change teachers oftener than once or twice per year, and a change as often as this is desirable for the healthy individual culture of the child. The school should not be a *family* influence, exclusively. It is the transition to civil society; consequently, the pupil must change teachers often enough to correct any one-sided tendencies of social culture that he may be liable to acquire from the individual teacher.

In small towns where the high-school classes do not number over thirty pupils each, such subdivision as I have here described can not be accomplished. But in such places there is ample occasion to apply this system to the district schools, which frequently suffer more than the high school from the wide intervals between the higher classes. Transfer of the same to the high school as a preparatory class, or to intermediate schools, will be found a salutary measure.

In the next place, it is objected that this plan prevents a general examination of a system of schools on one standard, as conducted by a superintendent. At a given time in the year the pupils in any one grade will not be found in the same degree of advancement, but will be at as many different stages of work as there are classes. But this general examination is no longer required as a test for promotion, and hence its value is limited to the discovery of differences between classes, a function that it will perform excellently under the system proposed. More than this, by the new system one can test the thoroughness of a class by comparing its work on the examination with that of other classes next to it, above or below.

In the St. Louis schools there are 29 pupils in the first year's work to 22 in

the second, 21 in the third, 12 in the fourth, 7 in the fifth, 4 in the sixth,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in seventh year's work, and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in the high-school course of four years. Thus the grading there is uniformly good in the lowest three years of the course in all the schools. In the upper four years of the district-school course, and in the high-school course, it becomes necessary to transfer pupils to central schools, in order to secure the same advantages. The system of intermediate schools in Cincinnati was designed to accomplish this object. In Chicago and St. Louis the grading in the lower classes of the district schools has been for some time conducted on the system here proposed, and with satisfactory results. The introduction of the same system into the higher classes, as here proposed, would seem to be demanded by all practical considerations, such as economy of teachers' salaries, and economy of time on the part of the pupil.

#### DISCUSSION.

The discussion of the paper was opened by *Mr. A. P. Stone*, Prin. Portland, Me., High School. He said that pupils undoubtedly leave school at too early an age; but, in his opinion, there is an erroneous idea respecting the age at which they leave. He believes it a fact that the age of students graduating from college is greater than formerly, though we find in looking at a school that they are younger than we were when in their places. But pupils leave schools for business before their education has commenced. We criticise the schools of England, but theirs may have many points of excellence which ours lack. The knowledge acquired has a certain practical utility which our boys do not attain. In our country there is too much haste to enter business. Disgusted with fractions, boys hasten into shops. A practical education is called for, and this the people do not feel that they have. Their idea of the practical is often at fault. An almanac may be had for a few cents; but the principles involved have been found out in centuries. Another cause of early leaving school is the notion among parents that a thorough business education can be had in a very short time. A boy is not fitted for entering upon a technical education till the eighteenth year. Another cause of keeping the children from school is the worthlessness of some parents, who send their children to the stores or shops and themselves do the marketing.

One remedy for this evil was illustrated from the custom in certain cities of allowing only those boys to be boot-blacks and errand-boys who are licensed; and these licenses can only be had by attending school. This is a healthy sort of compulsion, and works well.

It will also keep pupils in school to show them and their parents that it is more profitable to be instructed first and work afterwards, since educated labor pays best. But the mercenary view is not the highest aim of schools. We must convince the community that a boy who is designed for a measurer of wood is not educated when he has learned to measure wood. We must show parents that there is a positive advantage in all respects in the elevating influence of a good education.

*The President* (MR. HANCOCK) called attention to points in the able address upon which there may be difference of opinion.

*W. E. Crosby*, of Iowa, thought too early admission of pupils to school causes

them to leave school early. They try to grasp things too difficult and are discouraged. They lose the benefits of high-school studies because of immaturity which keeps them out of the school or disables them from going on when there. The personal influence of the teacher is the most reliable means of retaining pupils in school.

*E. A. Hubbard*, Sup't of Schools, Springfield, Mass., explained that the paper refers only to pupils for the kindergarten school at the age of four years. The community do not recognize the relation between education and position. He illustrated by referring to the academies of olden time. The meagre pay of educational work deters boys from looking to it for a livelihood.

*H. F. Harrington*, Sup't of Schools, New Bedford, differs from the essayist in respect to the recommendation of frequent promotions. He thought it extremely injurious to select all the dull boys for one room and the bright ones for another. For dull pupils to be left with no measure of progress but their own stupidity must be abhorred of God. The assumption that pupils must of necessity be promoted or not-as they are above or below a certain per cent. is wrong. The best good of the child is the only correct standard.

*Mr. Harris* explained that his idea of a correct system is that the grades should be only five or six weeks apart; so that pupils out from sickness, falling behind, will not have to go so far back. This shaking-up consequent upon the distance of one year between grades throws out many pupils.

*The President*, Mr. HANCOCK, asked whether a pupil might not be under three teachers in one year, and whether her influence would not be lost?

*Mr. Harris* replied that this might happen in the common system; but the influence of the teacher is no less with her pupils. He also referred to the economy of always keeping the quota of every room full.

*Mr. Harrington* asked how the promotions to the high school and the graduation could take place if children are moved forward every five weeks.

*Mr. Harris*. At the last class in high school, graduation can take place once in six months. And this is not necessary, for the studies are of such a nature that they may be pursued one term or three.

*Mr. Avery*, of Ohio. How will your plan work in a city of 10,000 inhabitants?

*Mr. Harris*. The division of classes could not take place in the upper grades of a high school in such towns; but it might in the lower classes. Promotion may take place at any time—that is, pupils may be put on the studies of the next grade. The calendar and the place need have nothing to do with it. The teacher should be able to teach in any grade. This problem becomes easy in proportion as we remove from it the elements of time and place.

*Mr. Seaver*, Davenport, Iowa. Thinks the essayist is on the right track. The private-tutor principle, so common in England, should be applied as far as practicable in our public schools. Too hard lessons often drive pupils from school.

*Rev. Daniel Leach*, Superintendent Schools Providence, R.I. This evil is less

serious in his city than elsewhere. Few leave on account of grading. The course of study keeps them busy and does not crowd them. In high school the course is four years. Pupils may be longer or shorter in completing it. They are not sent back; but the rank is determined by written examinations. They enter on probation, and if not able to sustain themselves, they do not expect to stay. Pupils leave because they and their parents do not appreciate the value of education. They must be enlightened.

*Mr. Harris* asked if the accommodations in high school are not full. Yes. Then, is not the number admitted limited? Yes. But the higher class in grammar school can review certain studies which might otherwise be reviewed in high school.

*Mr. Harris* thinks pupils prepared to go on into the culture studies ought not to be kept back.

*Rev. E. M. Stone*, of Providence, spoke briefly in explanation of the method adopted in the schools of his city to diminish the evil spoken of in the essay. One of the prolific causes of the withdrawal of pupils from school at too early an age was a pecuniary one. Parents wanted the earnings of their children, which they valued more than they did a thorough education for them. He deprecated the evil they were thus entailing upon their offspring and upon the community. One of the remedies for this early withdrawal he would seek in competent teachers, filled with magnetic attraction, and a correctly-educated public sentiment.

*Mr. Waters*, of Mass. Thinks educators should come down to the foundation of truth. In Maine, Massachusetts and Rhode Island, wages of operatives are so small that children are compelled to work contrary to law. The law is evaded in all these states.

Committee on Nominations reported officers for next year—

*For President*—W. M. T. HARRIS, Mo.

“ *Vice-President*—JOHN W. PAIGE, Md.

“ *Secretary*—A. P. MARBLE, Mass.

Report accepted, and officers elected accordingly.

*Voted* to recommend for Committee on Publication from this Section A. P. MARBLE.

Adjourned.

A. P. MARBLE, *Secretary pro tem.*

**THIRD DAY.****THURSDAY AFTERNOON.**

The Department was called to order by the President.

Hon. JOSEPH HODGSON, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Alabama, presented the following paper on

**NECESSITY FOR PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE GULF STATES.**

Alabama, the state which I have the honor in part to represent in this National Educational Convention, is the central star of that galaxy of states which encompass the Gulf of Mexico. Bold rivers permeate her plains and hills from north to south, bearing the rich freight of cotton-fields to the Bay of Mobile, whilst the nobler Tennessee, sweeping down from the southwestern gateway of Virginia, traverses her entire breadth from east to west, and links her to the grand water highways of the Mississippi valley.

The Alleghanian range of mountains, assuming the name of Apalachian as they stretch southward, break to pieces in her bosom, exposing to easy manipulation exhaustless deposits of useful and precious metals. This range forms the dividing line between the waters of the Tennessee (which vainly seek an opening through which to pass to the Gulf in their natural course and at last turn northward to meet the Ohio) and the other waters of the state, but a few miles distant, which flow southward to Mobile Bay. Within the valleys of this range of mountains and upon the healthy fertile plains of the Tennessee we find the most delightful climate and health-giving waters. There, wheat matures six weeks earlier than in the Northwestern States. Cattle graze throughout the year. The laborer hardly loses a day of the winter months from the tillage of his ground. The Malaga grape, the fig and pomegranate flourish in the open air. Sloping gently to the south, the hills disappear in a belt of prairies which lie smooth and luxuriant with cotton for a breadth of from sixty to one hundred miles, and stretching lengthwise from the heart of Georgia to the Mississippi River. South of this belt the pine forests and the alluvial river-bottoms extend to the Gulf. It will be seen at a glance that this country concentrates within its limits the productions of nearly every degree of latitude. We find the cereals and fruits which enrich the great West, mineral deposits superior in extent and variety to those of the Northern Alleghany States, a magnificent cotton region, which furnishes nearly eighteen per cent. of the cotton of the United States; and then the magnolias of an almost tropical sky and the orange-blossoms which perfume the breezes of the Gulf. Alabama is but a type of the other Gulf States, and she alone is capable of manufacturing every article needed for husbandry, and at the same time producing every article needed for the comfort and sustenance of man.

The ports of the Gulf States, Mobile, Pensacola, New Orleans and Galveston, are the gateways of the Mississippi Valley. Thence the cereals of the West go out to meet the tropical productions of the Caribbean Seas. The Central

American and South American States stand at the source of the Gulf Stream, which flows along the entire front of our Gulf States.

The Amazon empties into the equatorial current which sweeps northward along the entire eastern coast of this hemisphere, and touches the shores of Brazil, the Guianas, Venezuela, New Grenada, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Texas, and Louisiana. Bottles thrown into the mouth of the Amazon are stranded on the coast of Louisiana. A vessel can steer with bare pole along this Gulf Stream, and without unfurling a sail make the voyage from Guiana to the South Pass of the Mississippi River. So powerful is this current at the mouth of the Mississippi that it erodes the bottom of the ocean to the depth of 7,000 feet. This Gulf Stream receives the mouths of the Amazon, the Orinoco, Magdalena, Rio Grande, Brazos, Mississippi, and Alabama, pointing out the natural course of the tropical trade and proving that the Great Creator intended that the valleys of these rivers should interchange their products by their mouths, which He has thus linked together.

Not only do the ports of the Gulf look out upon the India which Columbus discovered, but they look out also upon the gateway to the India which Columbus sought. New Orleans offers, across the continent, the nearest shipping to San Francisco. The southern latitude is ample security against the winter obstructions of the northern railways to the Pacific. A line of continental railway from New Orleans to San Francisco would always be open and in practical operation, flanking the central barrens and developing a country of unsurpassed agricultural and mineral resources. But railways can not compete with water carriage. The commodities of Asia and of the Mississippi Valley must interchange by way of the Isthmus of Darien. That is the main gateway to the East. The Gulf of Mexico must soon be to Europe what the Mediterranean was in the Middle Ages. When the caravans which followed the route marked out by the crusaders greeted the products of Europe with the riches of the Orient upon the shores of the Mediterranean, the cities of that genial sea rose into beauty and commercial magnificence. They gave arts and sciences to mankind, and broke with a rising sun through the gloom of the mediæval ages.

In the westward march of empire the points of compass are changed, and what was once the east of Vasco Di Gama and of the De Medicis is now the west of the United States. The multitudinous people of Asia are stretching their labor and commodities toward the Isthmus of Darien, and the day is not far distant when the cities of the Gulf will repeat the glories of their fallen sisters of the Mediterranean.

The Gulf States, including Arkansas, whose river system connects her indissolubly with New Orleans, and not including Texas, embrace 250,690 square miles, or 160,441,600 acres, constituting an area as large as France and England combined. Texas occupies the Gulf coast for a distance of 400 miles, and covers an area of 274,356 square miles, or 175,587,840 acres, possessing a larger territory than the other five Gulf States combined.

All together, the area of this magnificent territory is 526,046 square miles, equal to 336,029,440 acres, "a region," to quote the language of the United States Commissioner of Lands, "embracing some of the most fertile and, productive land to be found in either hemisphere, situated in a mild and healthy



climate, circling half way round a vast inland sea, covering a surface nearly as large as the Mediterranean, and draining river-basins three times as capacious as the latter and much more important in the abundance and variety of their products." "The circumstances of fruitfulness of soil, salubrity of climate and superiority of commercial facilities have ever formed the basis of prosperity and power, and it is not difficult to perceive that in these respects the states fronting on the Gulf of Mexico possess advantages which, when fully developed, will have few parallels on the face of the globe."

"Some idea may be formed of the future wealth and greatness they are destined to attain by considering that the united areas of France, Great Britain, Prussia, Bavaria, Belgium, and the Netherlands, embrace only 514,220 square miles of territory, being less by 10,000 than are included in the boundaries of our Gulf States. These countries are among the most prosperous of Europe, and contain more than 105,000,000 of inhabitants. Comparing them with our Gulf States in respect to climate, soil and position, the advantages would seem to be greatly in favor of the latter; for, while all the products adapted to the soil and climate of the former can be raised equally well in the states bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, these latter yield, besides, the important staples of cotton, sugar and rice, and are capable of producing them in quantities sufficient to support all the markets of Europe and America, while large portions of several are well adapted to many of the semi-tropical fruits entering largely into the commerce of civilized nations."

"When it is considered that the expenses of living are sensibly less in a mild than in a more rigorous climate like that of the northern part of Great Britain, Prussia and the Netherlands, it is obvious that 'our Gulf States' will be capable, when their resources are fully developed, of supporting even a larger population than that which now occupies the European countries with which they have been compared."

Alabama stands, as I have said, the central star of this productive galaxy of states. She has more than twice the area and twice the natural advantages of the Netherlands; yet her population is but one million, whereas Holland and Belgium have nine millions of people. The area of Alabama and of England is nearly the same, the advantages being in favor of Alabama; yet the population of England is over 18,000,000.

What may not be the population of the Gulf States when the political passions of the day shall have subsided, or given way to newer and higher questions, when immigration shall have set in towards this garden spot of America, when its perennial streams shall have been dotted with factories; when its increased and increasing yield of cotton shall have turned a surplus of wealth toward manufacturing interests and opened up innumerable mines of coal and iron? I ask what may not be the population of this imperial domain, which equals in extent a European territory which gives life and labor to over 100,000,000 of people, and which lies upon the isothermal line of the populous empires of antiquity?

In the beautiful language of MATHEW F. MAURY, "Here, upon this central sea, Nature has, with a lavish hand, grouped and arranged in juxtaposition all those physical circumstances which make nations truly great. Here she has laid the foundation for a commerce the most magnificent the world ever

saw. Here she has brought within the distance of a few days the mouths of her two greatest rivers. Here she has placed, in close proximity, the natural outlets of her grandest river-basins. With unheard-of power of production, these valleys range through all the producing latitudes of the earth. They embrace every agricultural climate under the sun; they are capable of all variety of productions which the whole world besides can afford. On their green bosom rests the throne of the vegetable kingdom. Here commerce, too, in time to come, will hold its court.

"The three great outlets of commerce—the Delta of the Mississippi, the mouths of the Hudson and Amazon—are all within two thousand miles, ten days' sail, of Darien. It is a barrier that separates us from the markets of six hundred millions of people—three-fourths of the population of the earth. Break it down, therefore, and this country is placed midway between Europe and Asia; this sea becomes the centre of the world, and the focus of the world's commerce."

The fathers of men now living saw these United States with a population of less than 3,000,000. Their sons have seen the Northern States alone embracing 30,000,000 of people. May not the sons of men now living see these Gulf States with a population little less than that of those European nations which equal them in territory?

This vast territory, with its immense resources and its grand capabilities, is destined, after a few years, in my opinion, to be the seat of a great population and wealth. It has already a population of more than 4,000,000. This must be the nucleus for those who are to come after them. Yet what is the condition, as a political body, of these 4,000,000 of people of these six states? Is it such as to commend itself to the hopes and aspirations of the American people? Is it such as to assure us that the development of population will be based upon that intelligence that is necessary for self-government and the preservation of republican liberty?

The report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education has called our attention to the statistics of illiteracy! According to the late census there appear to be in the State of Alabama, in a population of 996,000, not less than 382,000 persons who can neither read nor write; Arkansas, with a population of 484,000, has 130,000 illiterates; Mississippi, with a population of 827,000, has 312,000 illiterates; Louisiana, with a population of 726,000, has 275,000 illiterates; Florida, with a population of 187,000, has 71,000 illiterates; Texas, with a population of 818,000, has 221,000 illiterates.

The percentage of illiterates in Alabama is 38; in Arkansas is 28; in Mississippi is 38; in Louisiana is 39; in Florida is 38; in Texas is 27. The average rate of illiterates to the whole population in these six states is over 34 per cent. More than one-third of the people, it would appear, can neither read nor write. When we think of the large number who barely escape being classed with illiterates, who can sign their names with difficulty and read without understanding, who have no books in their homes and who take no newspapers, would I be far wrong in saying that half the population are devoid of that intelligence necessary for the advancement, even the protection, of free society?

Confining ourselves, however, to the statistics, we find that among the male adults of Alabama, those who are entitled to vote and hold office, there are 108,000 who can not read or write; there are 36,000 such voters in Arkansas;

there are 89,000 in Mississippi; there are 88,000 in Louisiana; there are 20,000 in Florida; there are 64,000 in Texas.

The number of these illiterates, principally of the colored race, is greater than the votes cast for the successful candidates in the popular elections of those states. Their number is sufficient to nominate and elect magistrates and law-makers, to make and unmake constitutions. They actually hold in their grasp the most magnificent territory of this continent, and the balance of power in national elections. As governmental questions pass beyond the boundaries of sections and races, and divide the people upon a higher and broader plane, the ballots of illiterates may solve the most weighty problems. Is it a question of finance, reaching to the purse of every citizen, and involving the comfort of every family? Is it a question of international commerce, upon which depends the safety or ruin of great manufacturing cities? Is it a question of governmental aid to enterprises of pith and moment, on which depend the progress or retardation of civilization? Is it a question of limitation of power, looking to an enlarged individual freedom or a stricter social security? In all such questions your umpire is an idiot. Watching with lack-lustre eyes the contest of gladiators, whether he turns up or turns down the thumb is simply the caprice of the moment.

If this condition of affairs affects the lately-emancipated race, it may be suggested that perhaps the ratio of illiterate minors is less than that of the illiterate adults. Unhappily, such is not the case. Although we are now in the eighth year since emancipation, and from the labors of the Freedmen's Bureau, of the missionary societies, and of the state public schools, we might expect to see a marked difference in the matter of illiteracy between the class of minors whose ages range from ten to twenty years, and the class of adults who have been deprived by age of an opportunity to learn to read and write, yet, by examining the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1871, we will be startled to see that the ratio of illiterate colored minors between ten and twenty years to the whole colored minor population between those ages is, within a very small fraction, as great as the ratio of adult illiterates to the whole number of adults. The fraction is so small, and the inference that little is being done is so great, that we are compelled to open our eyes to the fact that the coming generation of colored voters and rulers is nearly in the condition of the present generation.

It appears from the census that there is an increase since 1860 of illiteracy among the whites of the South. This is one of the terrible accidents of the war. In Alabama there are nearly 18,000 white voters who can neither read nor write. In Arkansas there are nearly 14,000 of such voters; in Mississippi, nearly 10,000; in Louisiana, more than 12,000; in Florida, nearly 4,000; and in Texas, over 17,000.

But while there are 48,000 white male and female illiterate adults in Alabama, we find 43,000 illiterate white minors between the ages of ten and twenty-one. This is a terrible increase of illiteracy among the whites. At such a rate, unless a halt is sounded, the next generation will almost double the percentage of illiteracy. The same is true of the other Gulf States.

It is easy to account for this startling state of facts in the Southern States. The colored people have had little opportunity to learn. The schools which have been established for their education by the government and by mission-

ary labor have been confined to a few towns and have reached but a handful. Very many of those who have been instructed in such schools have wandered northward and been lost to the population. The states have extended equal aid to colored schools from the state fund; but, in consequence of the great difficulty of securing teachers, the insufficiency of the state funds without a supplemental subscription which the whites can afford and the blacks can not, and the crippled condition of the finances of the states, but a small fraction of the colored minors have been brought further than the alphabet and the primer.

The increase of illiteracy among the whites is due to the fact that during the four years of war the entire population was in the field. Vast numbers of men were slain in battle, and their children through the four and five years of poverty which followed the war grew up to manhood without an opportunity to attend school. Sufficient reasons may be found for a condition of affairs for which neither the blacks nor the children of the whites are responsible. But we are not concerned for the reasons; we stand face to face with the facts.

Turning again to the tables of illiteracy we find that, although the population of the Southern States has not increased since 1860, the number of illiterate adult whites has increased in Alabama from 37,000 to 48,000; in Georgia, from 43,000 to 62,000; in Mississippi, from 15,000 to 23,000; in North Carolina, from 68,000 to 73,000; in Virginia, from 72,000 to 107,000; in Tennessee, from 67,000 to 105,000; in Kentucky, from 63,000 to 105,000. In short, we find in the Southern States, in this year of enlightenment, 1872, not less than 1,120,000 male adults, black and white, and 1,369,000 female adults, black and white, who can neither read nor write. Of the 6,000,000 voters of the United States, the census shows that nearly one-fifth of them are illiterates of the Southern States. So says the census. As a Southern man, I would prefer to keep silence in the presence of the dreadful fact, were it not that my duty as a citizen and an officer commands me to review the situation and cast about for the remedy.

The 1,120,000 reported illiterate voters of the Southern States do not tell the whole truth. Mr. HORACE MANN declares that while no one would report himself to the census-taker as illiterate if he were not so, very many escape being reported as such from an unwillingness to suffer the mortification of such a confession; and that it is within bounds to add *thirty* per cent. to the figures of the census on this point for its undoubted underestimates.

Governor CAMPBELL, of Virginia, in 1839, from investigations set on foot by himself, arrived at the conclusion that forty per cent. should be added to the census report of illiterates. From careful comparisons of the census reports for the several states, and for the several years 1840, 1850, and 1860, there can be no doubt that the figures of the census are far below the truth. Taking a mean figure between the conclusion of Mr. MANN and that of Governor CAMPBELL, we have reason to believe that there are not less than 1,500,000 voters, out of the 6,000,000 who will vote for either Mr. GREELEY or Gen. GRANT, who can neither read nor write. Beyond this million and a half, how many are there, shall we say, who read so imperfectly and write so illegibly that they are practically if not absolutely illiterate?

We stand appalled at the magnitude of the spectacle.

The cure for this disease, which must blight our republican existence unless removed, is to be found, as every intelligent mind must admit at this day, in a

firm and vigorous system of public instruction in each state. The mass of the people at the South can not be reached by private schools.

Alabama, before the war, did as much, if not more, in the matter of public instruction than any other Southern State. Her public school fund was made auxiliary to private subscription. Patrons contracted with and paid the teachers, the teachers returning to them a pro-rata share of the state fund when received. Yet these quasi public schools, out of a school population of 200,000, had a registered attendance of less than 100,000. The average attendance was about one-third of the entire number of children between school ages. This is what the private school system, even when aided by the public fund, was able to do. It left two-thirds of the children uninstructed in any regular course of even primary studies. Private schools must be even less efficient so far as the colored people are concerned. These people are extremely poor. The mass of them do not appreciate the necessity for instruction. They are nomadic, frequently changing employers and homes. Private schools are doing nothing among them, except here and there in the larger towns. If the condition of these people were as prosperous as that of the whites, we could not expect, judging from experience, that more than one-third of the children could be reached by private schools. Without public instruction the disease of illiteracy is beyond remedy. Such is the experience of mankind.

How is the system of public instruction to be expanded and strengthened in the Southern States?

Without aid from the people of the United States, through Congress, I despair of seeing much improvement during the present generation. The states of the South are now distressingly poor.

I find from the late census report, now lying before me, that in 1860 Alabama had \$495,237,000 of taxable property, and that upon this property she raised a revenue of about \$400,000, sufficient for her current expenses. In 1870, however, her taxable property is \$201,855,000, and upon this she raised a revenue for the state of \$1,250,000. Nearly three-fifths of the taxable property of Alabama is destroyed, and upon what is left she pays thrice the taxes she formerly paid upon the whole.

And so I find that whereas Arkansas in 1860 had of taxable property \$219,000,000, she has in 1870 only \$156,000,000. Louisiana in 1860 had \$602,118,000; in 1870 she is assessed at \$323,125,000. Mississippi in 1860 had \$607,324,000; in 1870 she is assessed at \$209,197,000. Texas in 1860 had \$365,200,000; in 1870 she is assessed at \$159,052,000. These five states in 1860 paid taxes upon \$2,288,879,000. In 1870 they paid taxes upon \$1,049,229,000.

It is useless to say that the lost property represents emancipated slaves. Removing that property from the taxation list, so far as the present argument is concerned, increases the burden upon the poor land-owner; in fact, adds to the impoverishment of the very class whom we desire more especially to reach with our public schools. The taxation which was lost to the slave-owner with the loss of personal property is now diffused over the whole remaining property of the state. Not only so, but a far greater taxation is thus generally diffused in consequence of greater interest falling due upon accumulated public debts, and greater expenses arising from the necessity of providing against a greater number of criminals and for a greater number of objects of charity. The ca-

capacity and expense of the courts, the jails and the asylums have been doubled. I desire to call your attention still further to the burden of taxation upon the Southern States. This comparative table shows how we suffer in comparison with others:

(FROM THE CENSUS OF 1870.)

	True Valuation of Property.	Taxation, State, County, and Municipal.	Ratio of Taxation to true Valuat'n.
Alabama .....	201,855,841	2,982,932	1.47
Arkansas .....	156,394,691	2,866,890	1.83
Mississippi .....	209,197,345	3,736,432	1.80
Louisiana .....	323,125,666	7,062,722	2.18
Florida .....	44,163,655	496,166	1.12
Texas .....	159,052,542	1,129,577	.70
Massachusetts .....	2,132,148,741	24,922,900	1.17
New York .....	6,500,841,264	48,550,308	.75
Ohio .....	2,235,430,300	23,526,548	1.00
Connecticut .....	774,631,524	6,064,843	.78
New Jersey .....	940,976,064	7,416,724	.70
Pennsylvania .....	3,808,340,112	24,531,397	.65
Illinois .....	2,121,680,579	21,825,008	1.00
Indiana .....	1,268,180,543	10,791,121	.80
Six Gulf States.....	1,093,789,740	18,274,719	

The true valuation of property in the six Gulf States, and in North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Georgia, is \$2,254,000,000. That in Ohio is nearly the same, \$2,235,000,000. The Southern States, upon this property, pay \$34,000,000 of taxes; Ohio pays upon the same property only \$23,500,000 of taxes. The Southern States pay 44 per cent. heavier taxes than Ohio, and over 60 per cent. heavier than New York. They pay upon the same property 40 per cent. more taxes than Massachusetts. You must agree with me, therefore, that in the impoverished condition of the South we can not expect the people of that section to add to their burden of taxation by voting any considerable supplies as supplementary to the state school fund.

There is a mode whereby I think a general plan of public instruction may be sustained and developed in the Southern States. We may omit Texas from this view, as her state public lands, embracing an imperial domain, are now set apart for public schools. In a few years her public school fund will be the largest of any of the states.

In the other Gulf States there is a large quantity of public lands belonging to the General Government, and which are bringing no revenue into the treasury. The acres of public lands in those states unsold, the amount realized from sales for the year 1870, and the estimated annual expense of conducting the sales, is as follows:

	Acres.	Amount Received.	Expenses, estimated.
Alabama .....	6,581,305	\$15,796	13,800
Mississippi .....	4,749,259	6,071	4,500
Louisiana .....	6,519,798	4,557	9,100
Arkansas .....	11,377,943	14,735	10,900
Florida.....	17,349,167	6,940	6,500

These lands are comparatively valueless for homesteads, consisting chiefly of pine barrens and mountains, but are of very great value for timber and for their mineral deposits. I firmly believe that by proper management the State of Alabama could realize for an educational fund, from the 6,500,000 acres of public lands within her borders, not less than \$6,500,000, and that the United States Treasury is not realizing, and will not realize, from their sale under the homestead laws, any sum worthy of consideration.

As these lands are bringing nothing into the U. S. Treasury, why should not Congress grant them to the state for educational purposes?

Apart from the peculiar condition of the Southern States at the present time, there is another reason why the Gulf States should be aided by the Federal Government. Since 1848, every state which has been admitted into the Union has received two townships of lands for a seminary of learning, and two sections in each township for common schools; but the states admitted before 1848 received only one section for common schools and one township for a university.

I do not deem it necessary to comment upon the facts I have placed before you. Your intelligence apprehends the argument at a glance. I simply conclude by asking you, as a body, to join with me in an appeal to Congress to aid the public schools of the South. They need aid, for the strengthening of free government, for the diffusion of happiness, for the building-up of religion; they can not aid themselves to the extent that is demanded. The government can aid them without trenching upon its resources. Let us urge upon Congress to take immediate action. I know of no other means by which the poison of illiteracy can be arrested. Not to arrest it is to surrender republican institutions to the accidents of the hour.

#### DISCUSSION.

*Gen. John Eaton, Jr.*, U. S. Commissioner of Education, lamented the indifference of one class to the interests of another. The aim of the common-school system is to do for the lowly and the unfortunate what they could not do for themselves. He spoke of the measure recently introduced into Congress to aid the sections of the country. The exigencies then present have passed away; hence, what is now done must apply to the whole country.

*Mr. Blake*, of N. C., wished the paper might be printed in pamphlet form and circulated through the North. Its influence can but be beneficial.

*Mr. Hubbard*, of Iowa, heartily concurs with the sentiment of the paper. The national fund would be distributed to states in proportion to illiteracy. He wishes this fund might be distributed by the states as a special appropriation.

*Mr. Wickersham*, of Penn., remarked that one year ago he had a paper against the proposition to establish a national system of education. But then, as now, he favored the policy of aiding the needy states in supporting their own system of education. He believes this is the sentiment of his state. It is the belief in some quarters that those in charge of the state governments since the war in the South have been extravagant in the expenditure of money. This causes a hesitation in appropriating more money for their use. The bill now before Congress will be defeated on this ground, if at all. The belief may not be well founded; but the statement is made because the South is here represented, that they may know the feeling which they must meet.

Gen. Hodgson explained that the indebtedness of the South has largely been incurred from building railroads; and in time the cost may be returned. The cost of establishing again the state governments and various asylums has been great. He thinks there has been less extravagance than is supposed.

Hon. H. Barnard, Ex-U. S. Commissioner of Education. We ought, in looking at the educational affairs of the South, to remember what was the condition there thirty years ago. We have no national system of education. It is not best to pretend that we have. At the South, in New Orleans, Mobile, and other large cities, they have schools modeled after those of the Northern States. But in many country districts the population is too sparse for such a system. Not all the national or state appropriations can meet the difficulty. A system of itinerating teachers like that of Sweden ought to be encouraged. This question is not understood by the North. The condition of the rural districts differs from that of the North. And he doubted whether the North will be willing to furnish aid to the South.

Mr. Blake moved to request the daily papers to publish the address of Gen. HODGSON. Carried.

Pres. Hancock. Does not doubt that something should be done to aid the South, and that the people of the North will aid them gladly.

Mr. Harris presented the report from the Committee on "Basis of Percentage of School Attendance," as follows:

*To the Members of the Department of School Superintendents.*

GENTLEMEN: Your committee beg leave to report that, after the last annual meeting, the plan suggested in the preamble and resolutions referred to them was adopted, on trial, in some of the western cities, and among them St. Louis, Chicago, and Cincinnati.

The plan proposed recommended that "In all cases of absence from school, whether with intention of returning or not, whether the absence be occasioned by sickness or other causes, including suspension of pupils, but excepting solely the case of transfer to some other school in the same system, that the pupil's name be kept on the roll as *Belonging for three whole days*, and dropped uniformly in case he does not return on the seventh half-day."

In the cities above named the former method of keeping such records was in some cases continued for disciplinary and other purposes. The advantages gained by the adoption of the new system consist wholly in the absolute reliability of its results, for comparative purposes. No margin has been left for any arbitrary construction on the part of the teacher, or for differences on account of strictness or laxity of discipline.

Your committee would represent that hitherto, and in all other systems, there has been such variation and modification from outward circumstances or surroundings that it has been impossible to tell whether the regularity of attendance in one city is greater or less than that of another.

Two items had been and are perfectly reliable: 1st, the item of average actual daily attendance in school; 2d, the item of total number enrolled for the year, deducting the number of duplicate registrations.



Your committee consider it to be desirable to keep this third item, the *average* daily number belonging to school, for the following reasons:

(1) It shows the temporary irregularity, and indicates the strictness of discipline on the part of the teachers, the moral tone of the pupils, and, to a large extent, the estimation of the community as regards the importance of the school.

(2) The total enrollment indicates the state of the more general and deeper causes lying in the social structure of the community—such, for example, as the vocations of the people, their wealth, or their political condition.

But these causes lie beyond the scope of immediate and direct influence on the part of school management.

The directive power of the school is responsible, however, in a far greater degree for the regularity of attendance *while belonging*. It is not easy for the teacher or the superintendent to influence an agricultural community to increase the annual amount of schooling for their children; but it is easy to secure comparatively regular attendance during the time that they belong to the school. This fact has been felt by educators, and accordingly various plans have been adopted by which to secure comparison of schools on this item of regularity. In some places a weekly enrollment or a monthly enrollment secures a basis for this item. But this does not reach the irregularities of each individual, but only those of the school in the aggregate. It is therefore not so desirable as the system by which the pupil is counted as belonging for a certain length of time, and in case of absence under certain restrictions.

The so-called Chicago Rule gives us the results in this form. The pupil is counted as belonging for five days, in case of absence for sickness, and for two days in case of absence with intention of returning but without the excuse of sickness or something else of equally stringent nature. The name is dropped at once in case of suspension of the pupil or of his withdrawal without intention of return.

Here we see two items entering the calculation which are variable and difficult to fix. No two schools or systems of schools in the country have precisely the same means of ascertaining the intentions of pupils as to return, or as to the stringency of the causes of temporary absence; or, finally, the same standard of estimating the occasion for applying the remedy of suspension of the pupil. For these reasons, there is an urgent need for adoption of a uniform standard on which to reckon the number belonging, and to *separate entirely* from it any records designed to have a disciplinary effect, or dependent upon *intention* of the pupil as contradistinguished from his *overt* act.

Therefore, your committee recommend the adoption of the resolution above related, together with its accompanying preamble.

W. T. HARRIS, Chairman of Special Committee.

*Mr. Hancock.* The plan proposed has been tried in Cincinnati, and worked admirably. The same is true of Chicago and St. Louis.

*Voted*—To recommend this plan to the superintendents of the country.

Adjourned.

A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.

## BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

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### PROCEEDINGS FOR 1872.

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#### OLD BOARD.

The Board met in the building of the Girls' High and Normal School, Boston, August 5th, and was called to order by the President, Hon. E. E. WHITE, of Ohio.

Present—The President; W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota; J. HANCOCK, Ohio; J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin; J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania; C. C. ROUNDS, Maine; J. H. HOLMES, D. C.; D. A. WALLACE, Illinois; Miss D. A. LATHROP, Ohio; Mrs. M. A. STONE, Connecticut; and the Secretary.

In the absence of H. H. RASCHIG, of Ohio, W. D. HENKLE, of that state, was elected to fill the vacancy, and A. ABERNETHY, of Iowa, was elected to fill the place of A. S. KISSELL, of the same state, also absent.

*Voted* that the Presidents of the Association and its Departments, and the General Secretary, be an Executive Committee for the session.

*Voted* that all matter for publication in the proceedings of this meeting of the Association be required to be in the hands of the publishing committee by the close of this week.

The bills of the President for printing and postage, \$53.28, were allowed and ordered paid.

Adjourned to 12 m. to-morrow.

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AUGUST 6.

The Board was called to order by the President.

Present—Messrs. PHELPS, HANCOCK, HOYT, HARRIS, WICKERSHAM, ROUNDS, N. A. CALKINS, of New York, HENKLE, ABERNETHY, WALLACE, Mrs. STONE, Miss LATHROP, Miss A. C. BRACKETT, of Missouri, and the Secretary.

It was voted that Mr. J. H. HOLMES be allowed \$100 in addition to the stipulated price for publishing proceedings of the Association for the year 1871.

*Voted* that this Board meet regularly at 8½ o'clock A.M. during the session of the Association.

Adjourned.

AUGUST 7.

The Board was called to order by the President.

Present—The President, Messrs. WICKERSHAM, PHELPS, HANCOCK, WALLACE, ABERNETHY, HOLMES, Mrs. STONE, Miss LATHROP, and the Secretary.

*Voted* that the President be authorized to give final answer to all persons applying for places on the programme for the purpose of presenting special subjects.

Adjourned.

AUGUST 8.

The Board was called to order by the President.

Present—The President, Messrs. HANCOCK, WICKERSHAM, WALLACE, HOLMES, ABERNETHY, Mrs. STONE, and the Secretary.

*Voted* that the Finance Committee be authorized to pay all bills incurred during the present session.

The Treasurer presented his report, which was approved and ordered published. [See page 120.]

S. H. WHITE, Secretary.

## NEW BOARD.

LOWELL INSTITUTE, August 7.

The Board was called to order by Vice-President Hon. N. BATEMAN, Illinois, and adjourned to meet at the close of the morning session of the Association to-morrow.

GIRLS' HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL, August 8.

The Board was called to order by the President, Hon. B. G. NORTHPROP, of Connecticut.

Present—The President; Messrs. G. P. BEARD, Missouri; A. P. STONE, Maine; JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio; WARREN JOHNSON, Maine; JUDAH DANA, Vermont; D. CROSBY, New Hampshire; J. C. GREENOUGH, Rhode Island; J. H. HOOSE, New York; ADOLPH DOUAL, New Jersey; CHARLES H. VERRILL, Pennsylvania; HENRY C. BLAKE, North Carolina; J. W. HOYT, Wisconsin; A. G. BOYDEN, Massachusetts; Mrs. M. A. STONE, Connecticut; Miss D. A. LATHROP, Ohio; and the Secretary.

Mr. R. R. MOSS, of Elmira, N. Y., in behalf of his fellow citizens, extended to the Association a cordial invitation to hold its next meeting in that city.

Invitations were also extended from Richmond, Va., and Washington, D. C.

After due consideration, it was unanimously voted to accept the invitation of Mr. MOSS, and hold the next meeting of the Association in Elmira, N. Y.

A vote of thanks was also passed to Mr. Moss and the citizens of Elmira, for the interest they had manifested in securing beforehand railroad accommodations and other favors to the Association at its next meeting.

Adjourned to close of afternoon session.

AUGUST 8—5 P.M.

The Board was called to order by the President.

Present—The President, Messrs. BEARD, STONE, CROSBY, DANA, HARRIS of Missouri, HOYT, Mrs. STONE, Mrs. A. S. KISSELL, Iowa, and the Secretary.

*Voted* that the bill of \$7.00, incurred by Prof. TYLER, of Illinois, in printing reports, be allowed and paid.

Adjourned.

S. H. WHITE, Secretary.

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the 1990s, the number of people in the UK who are aged 65 and over has increased from 10.5 million to 12.5 million, and the number of people aged 75 and over has increased from 4.5 million to 6.5 million (Office of National Statistics 1999). The number of people aged 65 and over is projected to increase to 15.5 million by 2020, and the number of people aged 75 and over to 8.5 million (Office of National Statistics 1999). The increase in the number of people aged 65 and over is expected to be the result of a combination of factors, including a decline in the birth rate, a decline in the death rate, and a decline in the rate of emigration (Office of National Statistics 1999).

The increase in the number of people aged 65 and over is expected to have a significant impact on the UK's health and social care system. The number of people aged 65 and over who are in need of health and social care services is expected to increase from 1.5 million in 1990 to 2.5 million in 2020 (Office of National Statistics 1999). This increase is expected to be the result of a combination of factors, including a decline in the birth rate, a decline in the death rate, and a decline in the rate of emigration (Office of National Statistics 1999).

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